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ABSTRACT

The 17 articles in this collection outline the state of linguists' present knowledge about English and suggest ways of dealing with language in the English classroom. Topics include an historical investigation of language attitudes and the implications for bidialectalism in the schools; professional viewpoints on the Back to the Basics movement as it relates to spelling, grammar and usage, and language and dialect; the use of a wide variety of media in English language study; the way in which a supplementary writing laboratory was structured; ways of teaching composition to Native Americans; the importance of teaching listening skills; an inductive approach to the rules of speaking; a survey of students' attitudes toward spelling; the employment of concepts of Action-Learning in the classroom; and a method for teaching exposition through the use of sector analysis. (GW)

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ENGLISH TEACHER PREPARATION

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Preface to the April 1977 Arizona English Bulletin

This issue of the Arizona English Bulletin contains articles about the state of English teacher preparation, both pre- and in-service, in Arizona and elsewhere. The issue opens with NCTE's Statement on the Preparation of Teachers of English and the Language Arts, which was prepared by the Council's Standing Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification. This committee reassessed the findings of the 1967 English Teacher Preparation Study, in order to take account of changes wrought in educational philosophy and in society at large in the ten years intervening since 1967. An Arizona teacher, Marguerite Caldwell, helped in the preparation of the statement, as did Richard Larson, Thomas L. Barton, Arthur Eastman, G. Melvin Hipps, Jerome Green, and Alan Hollingsworth.

Juxtaposed to the ideal situation proposed by the Statement you'll find descriptions of offerings in English Education at our state universities, reminiscences by practicing teachers, research findings and teacher surveys on the state of English teacher preparation in 1977. There is, as well, a superb bibliography of secondary sources in science fiction and fantasy, for those of you who are teaching such a course without benefit of academic preparation for it.

Next year's issues of the Bulletin will consider "The Teaching of Reading" (deadline: August 15, 1977), "Literature and Composition" (deadline: January 1, 1978), and "Speech and Drama in the English Class" (deadline: February 15, 1978). If you wish to contribute to any of these issues, please send inquiries or manuscripts to the editor, whose address appears on the inside front cover. Have a good summer.

THE NCTE STATEMENT ON THE PREPARATION OF TEACHERS OF ENGLISH AND THE LANGUAGE ARTS

INTRODUCTION

In the middle sixties, when the Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers of English were being developed, "English" was defined by the College Entrance Examination Board's Commission on English as a discipline comprising language, literature, and composition--the familiar "tripod." Today, that metaphor has all but disappeared as a definition of English; our subject is viewed not only as a body of knowledge and as a set of skills and attitudes but also as a process, an activity--something one does (i.e., one uses and responds to language, in a variety of ways in a variety of contexts). In the mid-sixties, English was viewed mainly as an academic discipline, whose mastery was a sign of one's intellectual development. Today, many teachers agree that using English is also a means by which students grow emotionally; students respond to their experiences and learn about their worlds, their feelings, their attitudes, and themselves by using language about these subjects.

One particular result of this new conviction has been the insistence on the affective values of English--particularly literature. Today many teachers invite students to say how they as individuals respond to a work of literature--what it says to them about their lives, about other human beings, and about human life in general.

The idea that "English" includes whatever one does with language (maybe even: whatever one does with symbols) has broadened the activities of the English classroom beyond what most of us would have envisaged ten years ago. "Dramatic" activities, such as improvisation and the enactment of literary texts, are now encouraged; oral language is for many teachers as much of a concern as written language, and for some teachers even more of a concern. The media (including nonprint media) occupy prominent places in our curricula. Popular culture commands the attention of many teachers (and the interest of many students) alongside Shakespeare, Fielding, Dickens, Auden, Emerson, and Frost. Indeed, the body of literature considered worthy of attention in our schools has been extended dramatically to include more works by minority writers and women--groups who had little specific attention in curricula developed before the 60's. At the same time, many teachers are asserting that one goal of English must be to teach students the basic skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing, and are voicing concern over test scores which imply that these skills are not being achieved.

Emphases in individual classrooms have changed, too. There is now greatly increased interest in helping teachers recognize individual differences among students and develop individualized programs. The recent attention to "open classrooms" is only one manifestation of a desire among some educators to assure that students are encouraged to learn at their own pace, in their own fields of interest, while continuing to broaden their intellectual interests and their capacity to respond as total human beings to a variety of experiences. "Divergent thinking" and "creativity" among students are values and goals applauded in much professional writing about the teaching of English.

What is more, some of those who direct teacher education programs are asking whether the college campus is the best place to prepare teachers for the schools. These persons are insisting that numerous and varied experiences of teaching--under supervision or in teams, perhaps, but still teaching--are essential to a teacher's preparation. These persons call, accordingly, for getting prospective teachers into the schools more, for having them serve as apprentices in a variety of ways and thus learn the profession from skilled, experienced, and imaginative teachers who are practicing it with children. In many parts of the country, as a result, teacher education programs are "field-based"--i.e., they include a great deal of experience in the schools--in spite of the fact that the superiority of field-based to more traditional programs has yet to be proved.

In the 60's a major influence on teaching, besides the Commission on English, was the U.S. Office of Education, which funded summer institutes and academic-year institutes for inservice teachers and awarded fellowships to prospective teachers--largely to strengthen teachers' command of their disciplines, to familiarize them with "new materials," and to help them learn to work with "disadvantaged" students. The Office of Education also supplied money to several universities and curriculum development centers for the preparation of major subject-centered curriculum projects such as those that came from Nebraska and Oregon.

But federal money for the subject areas has all but disappeared. Governmental influence has shifted away from helping teachers improve their mastery of the subject and their teaching skills and away from helping them develop materials. Instead, the government's attention has turned toward ways of enforcing accountability: toward ways of assessing, through precise specification of desired behavior in students and measurement of students' accomplishments, whether the teacher has done the job the public is paying for. The interest in accountability may have been nurtured in Washington, but it has been picked up by state and local governments, with the result that in 1976 "accountability" is in many states the leading watchword in education. An important manifestation of the wish for accountability is the developing impulse toward testing, observed in the work of the National Assessment of Educational Progress and in the attention of many educational agencies and government bureaus to tests and test results.

The movement toward performance-based or competency-based certification of teachers is another obvious product of the demand for accountability. Pressing their demands for accountability, governmental units are involving themselves more directly than before in setting standards and procedures for teaching. In some large urban areas, passage of control of schools to community boards has brought more direct calls for schools to be strictly responsive to local interests. What may be a resurgence in censorship, arising out of local or parochial feelings and deriving encouragement from recent Supreme Court rulings, is another manifestation of the same movement: toward pulling decisions about the evaluation of teaching and curriculum away from teachers and departments, and vesting them in the public--in school boards, legislatures and other elected bodies.

In some areas, teachers have been responding to these pressures by organizing themselves. Some teachers are joining unions, which in addition to promising improved salaries and fringe benefits are pledging to protect individual teachers against arbitrary acts by administrators (for example, the enforcement of standards of accountability). Even professional associations are offering teachers suggestions for coping with pressures from outside the schools.

Whatever these events do to the teachers' sense of security, they surely establish a new climate for teaching: a climate of adversary relationships in which teachers must be concerned to demonstrate (often quantitatively) to administrators and elected officials that what they are doing works. How do we prepare the teacher for this climate?

If the professional world in which we live has changed rapidly in the last few years, the larger world within which all of us live has changed even more.

Individual manifestations of that changing world are familiar to us from the mass media, including newspapers and television: our sharpened concern for preservation of our natural environment and for the physical conditions with which we live; our increased power to communicate quickly and accurately with most other people on this planet; the expanding population of our world; the increased mobility of our population; the turnover in the population of our schools; our ability to place human beings on a celestial body and cameras on those we cannot reach with people; our increased power to destroy ourselves--either deliberately or inadvertently; our increased awareness of poverty and even starvation throughout the world; our increased reliance on non-print media for information about our world--a reliance which some fear may one day render the written word obsolete; our increased awareness of the pollution of language; our increased awareness of minority cultures and of their claims to recognition; the liberalization of our attitudes toward sex; our increased concern for the adequacy of supplies of energy to meet our own needs, let alone the world's needs. All these are urgent matters of concern among students, who will be facing these problems as they grow. Many teachers insist that schools recognize their responsibility to help students equip themselves for meeting such problems.

And our students are changing, too. (We include here not only children and adolescents but also students in four-year and community colleges.) Physically, students are maturing earlier. They vote earlier. Many are more alert to the social, political, and economic events that shape our world. Many are reared as much by media as by parents and schools. Many have lost the respect for authority that students used to have. In addition, more of our students are adults--people who have interrupted their studies and now return to them with fresh energy and broader perspectives than they had when younger. Out student body, therefore, is more complex than a few years ago.

Partly as a result of our recognition of the physical and social settings in which we teach, schools today are more oriented to the community outside them. The movement toward community control of schools has been noted. But teachers themselves are increasingly encouraged (at some institutions) to move out of their classrooms, into the community, to work with young people in homes and social agencies, so as to enlarge by experience outside the schools their understandings of students and their world.

Though we need not discard all that we do, we need to be aware of the inadequacies in what we are doing, and give impetus to changes in the preparation of teachers that are needed if professional preparation is to keep abreast of important changes in our field and in our world. Recognizing, then, that the teacher of English needs to respect and nurture students' intellect and imagination, as well as help them find for themselves a significant place in American society upon leaving school, the Committee on Teacher Preparation and Certification recommends the following emphases in the preparation of teachers of English.

QUALIFICATIONS NEEDED BY TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Teachers must know their disciplines thoroughly and be able to employ their knowledge --to draw upon it or act upon it as needed--in planning work with, or activities for, their students. The following paragraphs deal first with the knowledge teachers need. But these paragraphs focus most of their attention on what the teacher--drawing upon that knowledge--must be able to do, and on the attitudes needed by a teacher in order to work effectively with the varied groups of students in today's schools.

The qualifications needed by individual teachers will vary according to the students they teach, but teachers at all levels, dealing with all kinds of children, need most of the same qualifications. Acquiring these qualifications is a continuous process; it is not finished when the teacher attains provisional or even permanent certification, but should continue throughout the teacher's professional life.

KNOWLEDGE. Teachers of English need to know, and know to draw on for their teaching, according to the needs and interests of their students:

--processes by which children develop in their ability to acquire, understand, and use language, both oral and written, from early childhood onward;

--the relations between students' learning of language and the social, cultural, and economic conditions within which they are reared;

--the workings (phonological, grammatical, semantic) and uses of the language in general and of the English language in particular; and the processes of development and change in language.

--linguistic, rhetorical, and stylistic concepts that furnish useful ways of understanding and talking about the substance, structure, development, and manner of expression in written and oral discourse;

--the activities that make up the process of oral and written composing (these activities may differ among different students);

--processes by which one learns to read, from initial exposure to language in early childhood, through the first stages of readiness-to-read, through more advanced stages by which the reader comes increasingly to understand and respond to details of meaning and nuances of expression;

--an extensive body of literature in English (including literature for children and adolescents, popular literature, oral literature, nonwestern literature, and literature by women and minority groups);

--varied ways of responding to, discussing, and understanding works of literature in all forms;

--ways in which nonprint and nonverbal media differ from print and verbal media, and ways of discussing works in nonprint and nonverbal media;

--ways in which nonprint and nonverbal media can supplement and extend the experiences of print and verbal media;

--instructional resources (including educational technology) and varied sources of information (books, magazines, newspapers, tapes, recordings, films, pictures, and other nonprint and nonverbal materials) that will help students understand--through both intellect and imagination--the subjects and issues they are studying;

--the uses and abuses of language in our society, particularly the ways in which language is manipulated by various interests for varied purposes.

--problems faced and procedures used by teachers and educational leaders in designing curricula in English for students of different ages, abilities, and linguistic backgrounds;

--the uses and abuses of testing procedures and other evaluative techniques for describing students' progress in the handling and understanding of language;

--major research studies on acquisition and growth of language in children and adults, on reading, on response to literature, on the processes of composing, and on the building of curricula for different kinds of students in different settings.

ABILITIES: Teachers of English must be able:

--to identify, assess, and interpret student progress in listening, reading, speaking, and writing;

--to take appropriate steps to help students improve their skill in responding to and using language;

--to work effectively with students of different ethnic groups, including those who do not speak English as their native language;

--to organize groups of learners for a variety of purposes appropriate to the English classroom, e.g., discussion, creative problem-solving, composing, and commenting on compositions;

--to engage both the intellect and the imagination of students in their listening, reading, speaking, and writing;

--to ask questions (at varying levels of abstraction) that elicit facts, opinions, and judgments that are appropriate to the subject and occasion;

--to respond specifically and constructively to student discourse;

--to communicate to students, parents, administrators, and officials the conclusions that can be legitimately inferred from results of tests purporting to measure progress in using and understanding language;

--to set professional goals for themselves and evaluate their progress toward them;

--to guide students in producing discourse that satisfies their own distinctive needs;

--to help students distinguish between effective and ineffective discourse;

--to help students experience the connections between the experience of reading and the experience of writing;

--to help students learn to observe and report accurately;

--to help students distinguish among the language options (such as registers and levels of usage) open to them in various social and cultural settings;

--to help students respond appropriately to the differing demands made on speech and writing by different contexts, audiences, and purposes;

--to help both beginning and maturing readers apply varied techniques to improve reading comprehension;

--to help students learn to listen effectively for information, for understanding, and for pleasure;

--to help students develop satisfying ways of responding to, and productive ways of talking about, works of literature;

--to help students identify and weigh facts, implications, inferences, and judgments in both spoken and written discourse;

--to help students develop the ability to respond appropriately to and create nonprint and nonverbal forms of communication, including both symbolic forms and other visual and aural forms (including film, videotape, photography, dramatic performance, song, and other art forms).

ATTITUDES: Teachers of English at all levels need to reveal in their classes and in their work with individual students:

--a conviction that by helping students increase their power to use and respond to language both creatively and responsibly they are helping those students to grow as human beings;

--a respect for the individual language and dialect of each student;

--a willingness to respond and help students respond to work in all the different media of communication;

--a desire to help students become familiar with the diverse cultures and their art;

--a recognition that, whatever their rate of growth and progress, all children are worthy of a teacher's sympathetic attention;

--a sensitivity to the impact that events and developments in the world outside the school may have on themselves and their students;

--a flexibility in teaching strategies and a willingness to seek a match between students' needs and the teacher's objectives, methods, and materials;

--a commitment to continued professional growth.

EXPERIENCES FOR PROSPECTIVE TEACHERS THAT WILL HELP THEM DEVELOP THE NECESSARY QUALIFICATIONS

As part of their total program of preparation for teaching, prospective teachers of English should have the following experiences. Taken together, these experiences should enable them to discover what it means to understand and to use oral and written language effectively, and to design a range of activities that can, in time, increase their students' power over language.

The presentation of these experiences here does not imply that there should be a single pattern in teacher education programs. There are many paths to effective professional work in teaching, and prospective teachers should be encouraged to follow the path that most nearly suits their interests and abilities. Part III, following, highlights some of the issues to be confronted by educators of teachers in designing a plan for the preparation of teachers, and by prospective teachers in choosing one. At some point in the programs of prospective teachers, however--whether in courses, in internships, in student-teaching experiences, or in off-campus, out-of-school activities--all these experiences should be included:

1. gathering--and helping students in the schools to gather--materials that illuminate subjects of interest to students. In these experiences prospective teachers should seek out not only recognized literary works but also journalistic writing (news stories, editorials, feature articles, advertisements), cartoons, photographs, films, records, tapes, and other materials appropriate to classroom situations. Ideally, prospective teachers should get this experience through working with classes having varied kinds of student populations.

2. engaging in varied language activities--and leading students in schools to engage in comparable activities. These activities should include speaking (e.g., in interpersonal communication, discussion, panel presentation, debate, role-playing exercise, dramatic enactment); reading and reporting about what has been found in materials read and seen; conducting research (not simply by reading) to collect data on subjects being studied;

and writing (writing in varied forms: journals, narratives of personal experience, editorials, news stories, poetry, pieces of dialogue; using their own voices and assumed voices; addressing different audiences). Prospective teachers and their students should also have the experience of devising situations that invite a variety of language activities, and then engaging in the varied language activities possible in those situations. Indeed, teachers should have the experience of drawing from students a variety of symbol-using activities, so that the students will come to understand the linguistic and nonlinguistic resources available to them.

3. leading classroom discussions by using questions that range from simple to abstract, helping students formulate for themselves questions at several levels of abstraction, and encouraging interchange between student and student.

4. observing and understanding the special problems exhibited by some students in reading, listening, writing, speaking; and finding appropriate means to help students improve in these activities.

5. doing, themselves, the activities they expect students to perform--e.g., keeping a journal, writing poetry, writing to different audiences in different voices, taking part in dramatic improvisations, making films--and analyzing at some point the processes they pass through in doing these things.

Like prospective teachers of all other subjects, prospective teachers of English should have the experience of:

6. working frequently in schools, with students, as tutors, aides, interns, and student teachers. They should have these experiences with different kinds of students, including students of varied ethnic backgrounds. In these experiences, teachers should become familiar with varied materials, methods, curricula, and patterns of school organization. In their own internships and student teaching, prospective teachers should have the opportunity to experiment with a range of materials and methods.

7. using, in classes, materials and techniques for teaching that they have developed. (This experience should include the making of decisions about preferred methods of classroom organization for different kinds of students.)

8. evaluating and interpreting data about students, including data supplied by tests and data derived from other work by the students, and developing appropriate tests or other assessment devices to reveal students' language abilities.

9. identifying specific outcomes that might flow from their teaching and from students' efforts at learning; differentiating the outcomes that can be reliably verified from those that are unverifiable; developing techniques for achieving both verifiable and nonverifiable outcomes; and developing means to verify whatever outcomes can be verified.

10. participating in the processes of development and change in the English curriculum, so that they see how curriculum change is brought about and what its goals are.

11. writing academic papers and pieces that address audiences outside the classroom.

12. discussing frequently with experienced teachers a variety of organizational and administrative problems in the schools, so that they will come to know the world within which teachers work, including some of its human and political problems.

13. working with student government, parents' associations, PTA groups, school boards, and faculty associations, so that they will come to understand the school as a social institution.

14. working with students outside of school, seeing students in their homes or other nonschool settings, and understanding students' activities outside of school.

15. becoming familiar with groups and individuals in the community, including members of social and ethnic groups other than their own.

16. being evaluated by supervisors, by students, and by themselves, and discussing what are apt criteria for evaluation in teaching.

17. participating in local, state, and national professional organizations, and assessing the value of these organizations in helping them keep abreast of developments in their profession.

The emphasis in the education of teachers of English should be on assuring that prospective teachers have these experiences--on seeing to it that while preparing for their profession, they engage in activities which, as members of the profession, they will have to undertake. Accordingly, it is not primarily on the activities of the teacher-educator or on the content of college courses that Part II has focused. The teacher-educator is a guide and coach, but is not the one who plays the game. Skilled guides and coaches, using the results of the best thinking and research about the subject, are of course essential. But it is the specific activities which the prospective teacher experiences that will largely determine how that person will perform when he or she enters the profession.

ISSUES FOR DISCUSSION IN THE PLANNING OF PROGRAMS FOR PREPARING TEACHERS OF ENGLISH

Although Parts I and II present in detail the knowledge, capabilities, and attitudes that a teacher of English needs, and suggest the kinds of experiences that a teacher should have, no document such as this can prescribe the shape and content of the ideal teacher education program. The characteristics of an effective program can be enumerated, but the ways in which these characteristics are achieved in a given program are up to the judgment--the inventiveness--of faculty members, inservice teachers, and members of the community who plan such programs. Rather than attempt to offer suggested outlines of teacher education programs, or models, to guide those who wish to plan a program, we present here a few of the questions that planners must confront and try to resolve with as much deftness and originality of design as they can command.

1. Which kinds of knowledge, skills, and attitudes should be developed by the prospective teacher before assuming major responsibility for a class (as in student teaching)? Which should be developed before the prospective teacher achieves certification and takes a full-time job in teaching? Which can be left for later development during the teacher's active career?

2. What is the preferred blending of courses in English and courses in the teaching of English? What is the preferred blending of courses in literature, language, reading, writing, psycholinguistics, etc., to assure that the teacher achieves a balanced preparation? What is the preferred blend of study on campus and experiences in schools (or other educational agencies) and in the community?

3. What is the preferred balance between work in which a prospective teacher learns to use and respond to language and work in which the prospective teacher tries to help students develop these abilities? What connections can be established in the teacher education program between learning to do and learning to teach others to do?

4. What should be the extent of the preservice teacher education program? When is a person ready to assume a full-time teaching position in English? Which of the kinds of knowledge and ability mentioned in Part I, and which of the experiences in Part II--if any--can be left for inservice work of the teacher?

5. What standards, if any, should be applied in determining which students should be accepted into programs for the preparation of teachers of English? What standards, if any, should be applied in determining which students should continue in, and which students should be asked to withdraw from, these programs? Who should determine these standards? By what process?

6. What standards should be applied in judging the teacher's attainment of the knowledge, capabilities, and attitudes mentioned in Part I? Should there be required levels of proficiency in each of the items named--to be attained before a person starts a full-time teaching career? If so, how should these levels of proficiency be determined, what tests of their attainment should be set for the candidates, who should judge the candidate's worthiness for certification to teach, and when should the decision be made?

7. Does a teacher need special preparation in order to deal with the distinctive characteristics of students in particular geographic areas and particular social and economic backgrounds? What sorts of special preparation are needed, and how can they be worked into a program that tries to educate persons to the qualifications enumerated in Part I?

8. To what extent should the teacher education programs emphasize preparing teachers to help students achieve minimal skills in reading and writing, if such an emphasis reduces the attention that can be paid to the teaching of literature, media, rhetoric, the creation of discourse, and other important areas in English?

9. Should a teacher education program develop a teacher's capacity for affective responses at the same time that it encourages the development of knowledge and skill in teaching? How can these capacities be developed simultaneously? How can a program assure the personal growth of a teacher at the same time that it provides for the development of knowledge and professional skill?

Other important questions will no doubt occur to the planners of teacher education programs. The designs they produce will show, by implication, how they have answered these questions. Accordingly, planners need to keep these questions before them as they work toward programs to assure that teachers have the knowledge, capabilities and attitudes urged here.

THE EDUCATION OF ENGLISH TEACHERS
AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ARIZONA

Margaret Fleming and John Hollowell, University of Arizona

Course requirements for the teaching major in English at the University of Arizona may be divided into three major areas: general education, professional education, and English courses. In the first two years of undergraduate education, teacher candidates are expected to prepare themselves as generally well educated persons, taking courses in the College of Liberal Arts prior to entering the College of Education. Each of the three major areas of preparation will be described below.

I GENERAL EDUCATION

Before entering the College of Education, usually in the junior year, students must complete 56 units of arts and sciences including the humanities, natural sciences, social sciences, foreign languages, and mathematics. The specific course requirements in general education are as follows:

Freshman Composition - 6 units
Physical Education - 2 units
U.S. History - 3 units
Arizona and U.S. Constitution - 3 units (or successful completion of an examination on the principles of the Arizona and U.S. Constitutions)
General Psychology - 1 course
Behavioral or Social Sciences - 1 course
Natural Science - 1 course
Humanities - 2 courses
Mathematics (must be computational) - 1 course

In working toward the necessary 56 units of required course work for admission to the College of Education, students of course accumulate credit toward the teaching major and minor as well. Students may be admitted to the College of Education when they have completed the above requirements with a grade average of 2.25. Courses in professional education and English are generally taken concurrently in the junior and senior years. For simplicity of presentation, these two areas of courses will be listed separately.

II PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

The typical program in Professional Education requires 28 units, including the student teaching requirement. The specific course requirements are as follows:

Educational Psychology (Learning in the Schools)--emphasizes the process and principles relevant to learning in schools, including concepts and techniques of measurement.
Reading 235 (Secondary School Reading in the Classroom)--includes diagnostic and instructional strategies for teaching reading skills in the various content areas.
Secondary Education 129 (Principles and Curricula of Secondary Education)--examines the historical development of the American secondary school; its aims, functions, outcomes; principles and practices of the school curriculum are discussed.
Secondary Education 130 (Teaching in Secondary Schools)--a general methods course including measurement and evaluation of learning, school policies and procedures. Students are involved in classroom observation and small group work in a variety of school settings.

Secondary Education 139 (Student Teaching)

Secondary Education 294 B (The Reading Practicum)--this course, generally taken concurrently with Sec. Ed. 139, requires students to apply concepts and techniques studied in Sec. Ed. 235 to the classroom.

Education Elective (one course)--students may choose from among Social Foundations of Education, Adolescent Development, Study of Exceptional Children, and Visual Aids in Teaching.

Professional Semester (optional program)

Although most students in Secondary Education complete the program described above, the professional semester allows students to combine Student Teaching, Teaching in Secondary Schools, and the Reading Practicum in a single "block program." The program, conducted in two Tucson public schools, provides for a more intensive introduction to teaching than does the regular program. The major difference between the two programs is that students in the regular program spend one-half of the school day student teaching; whereas students in the professional semester, after the first few weeks of intensive methods, spend a full day student teaching, following the calendar and work day of regular teachers. Students who have taken the professional semester generally feel that it prepares them more realistically for the total environment of the school and the rigors of teaching.

III ENGLISH EDUCATION

The teaching major in English requires 36 units of course work in literature, language, and composition. We shall look at the literature, and language and composition requirements separately.

Literature Courses

English 170 A and B (6 units)--a two-semester survey of English literature; 170 A, from Beowulf to Milton; 170 B from Milton to Yeats.

English 180 (Literary Analysis)--complements the 170 series by focusing on the in-depth study of particular texts. Trains students in close reading and various methods of literary interpretation.

English 131 or 231 A or B (Shakespeare)--131 focuses on six to eight representative plays; 231 is a 2-semester sequence that covers most of the plays in chronological order.

1 course in American literature

1 course in the study of poetry

English 211 (Methods of Teaching Literature)--Students must take 12 units of literature as a prerequisite for this course. Stresses the theory and practice of teaching literature, emphasizing works commonly taught in the high schools.

Senior Seminar--these courses vary each term and provide in-depth study of a particular figure, genre, or period. Recent seminars have been "The Courtly Love Tradition," "The Novels of William Faulkner," "The Gothic Tradition in Literature." Enrollment is limited to 15 students.

Language and Composition Courses

Sophomore Composition--Building on the student's experience in Freshman English, this course requires the writing of longer narrative and expository essays.

English 205 (History of the English Language)--an historical approach to the structure of English, using Baugh's History of the English Language.

English 206 (Modern Grammar and Usage)--presents the theory and practice of three grammatical systems, traditional, structural, and transformational. The basic assumptions as well as the strengths and weaknesses of various grammatical systems are stressed.

English 210 (Teaching of Composition)--the theory and practice of teaching writing in secondary schools. Topics treated may include classical rhetoric, current research in teaching composition, assignment making, and evaluation of student essays from various grade levels.

English 212 (Teaching of Language)--builds upon the theory and background established in 205 and 206. Treats the role of language in the secondary English curriculum. Topics treated include language and perception, language variation, semantics, onomastics, lexicography, and practical approaches to grammar and usage

The Teaching Minor

In addition to professional education and English education courses, students take a variety of minors in subjects commonly taught in secondary schools. Most minors range from 18 to 24 units.

Special Minor: Extended English Major--Rather than choosing a particular teaching minor, majors in English education may elect various courses supportive of the English major equaling 14 additional units, for a total of 50 units for the major and minor. Areas from which the student may choose include journalism, speech, reading, and drama.

The above description of the basic teacher training program in English describes the program as it now exists. However, in response to national trends and changing needs in the field of teaching, various program innovations have been proposed. A recent Delphi study in the Department of Secondary Education revealed two major areas of concern expressed by practicing teachers in the field: more stress on practical applications of teaching methods and earlier field experiences as part of teacher training.

Two faculty members in the College of Education have drafted a proposed program in teacher education that would deviate in several ways from existing programs. While the program is scheduled to begin in the fall 1977, some aspects are yet to be worked out in detail Significant concepts of the program can be outlined here, however, since they are indicative of possible new directions in teacher education at the University of Arizona.

1. The program would focus on skills and knowledge prospective teachers need rather than the usual definition of preparation through course work and credit hours.

2. The program would demand an earlier professional commitment from students, perhaps as early as the sophomore year. Students would be exposed to a variety of school settings and be encouraged to explore their own strengths and weaknesses as persons and as potential teachers.

3. The program would provide for follow-up supervision in student teaching by the same faculty team that has conducted the initial seminars. A team concept would prevail, stressing cooperation among College of Education faculty, public school teachers, and teacher candidates.

4. After student teaching, a follow-up seminar would be provided for students. Reasons for success and failure in student teaching would be explored in a group setting Other matters such as legal responsibilities of teachers and professional organizations would be explored.

Although this program is still in the planning stages, it has a strong possibility of providing another option for students who want to pursue a qualitatively different program in teacher education.

IV SURVEY OF RECENT ENGLISH EDUCATION GRADUATES

In an attempt to find out how effectively our program is serving the needs of the teaching field, the staff in English Education mailed out 298 questionnaires to recent graduates, 1970-1976. So far 89 have been returned.

Since the responses are still coming in, we can make no final report at this time, but we thought that the following letter would be of interest. It is a composite, incorporating a number of actual comments that are typical of those most frequently made.

Dear English Education Professors,

I'm glad that you're doing this survey. It's an excellent idea. You ask what I'm doing now and how I feel about my education as a preparation for it. I'll be glad to tell you, and I hope it helps.

I'm teaching English in a large high school in the Tucson area. I got the job mainly through my own efforts. I have five classes of 30 students, who have a real range of values and attitudes and read at every level, from second grade through college. The education I got at the University did not prepare me to cope with many of the situations I face daily. It's really frustrating trying to deal positively with such diversity.

You ask where I've had my greatest success. Often I'm not sure I've had any at all, but I think if I have it's being there when my students need help. It happens every day (that they need help), but I'm not always there. The personal relationships, though, are what really count in teaching, and these are enough to make me want to continue.

Since my graduation I've taken several courses, some in-service and some at the University. The reading courses have been especially helpful. I plan to complete a Master's degree either in Reading, English, or Secondary Ed., I'm not sure yet which.

About my undergraduate preparation--I enjoyed my English courses; most of them were very good, although I would have liked a chance to participate more in some. As I recall, the secondary ed. teachers were more sympathetic, and I felt closer to them, but many of the classes were a waste of time; they were far too theoretical. The discussions were on relevant matters, but specific ideas never surfaced. The education courses, however, did give me the bravado to jump into the pits, where I learned how to teach in order to survive.

The English Education courses were more helpful, but they were also far too idealistic. They were good for how to teach literate juniors and seniors, but gave me no idea how to teach students who cannot read, spell, write, or speak at the high school level. That's the way real classrooms are composed. You may have expertise in a field, but it's of little value if you can't first get the student's attention and interest. Since today's student does not come equipped with an inner motivation to learn, more knowledge on how to stimulate that missing motivation would have been helpful. Maybe you have all been out of public school classrooms for too long.

The English courses of most benefit to me were Teaching Literature, Teaching Composition, Shakespeare, and the English and American literature courses. The course of least benefit was Modern Grammar and Usage. It was too advanced and too theoretical, and there was far too much emphasis on transformational grammar. It gave me nothing I could use in the classroom. What I needed was something practical, something related to the actual teaching of grammar in the schools. History of the English Language was another course that was of little value. There was so much rote memorizing required that I've forgotten most of the content. It was of no help in the classroom either.

The reading course I took was excellent. It gave me a lot of practical suggestions that I've been able to use. I definitely believe that all teachers should be required to take reading courses.

By far the most valuable course of my entire college career was student teaching. It was the only one that taught me what classrooms and kids are really like. But if I hadn't enjoyed the experience, it would have been awfully late to change careers. Prospective teachers need to be exposed to these things much earlier.

Even student teaching was a bit unrealistic, though. There was always my cooperating teacher to help me if things got out of hand. I honestly don't think there is any way on the earth to prepare a person to take over an entire series of classes every day for an entire year without actually doing it. Nothing, ever, could have prepared me for the feelings of inadequacy in personal relationships with some students, of retaliatory anger toward others, of depression about the way some entire classes were progressing, of insecurity about grades, and all that crap that first hits the first year. I feel that my basic background in the subject matter is fairly good, but that's really only about 10% of what I've found teaching to be all about.

What do you do when a kid comes to school stoned? What do you do when a 6-foot ninth grader tells you to "fuck off?" What do you do when a kid has an asthma attack or vomits in your classroom? What do you do when you see 180 kids a day, and you only have 25 books to use and they are 30 years old? Who do you see in the district for resource help in your area? There is so much the University does not teach and so much it teaches which is utterly useless.

The greatest improvement you could make in the teacher education program would be significant and continuing exposure, from the junior year on, to the realities and limitations existing in the schools. Students should spend part of every semester observing a great variety of teachers, teaching mini-units, and working with kids. They could then use their experiences to produce viable lesson plans in quantity. They should evaluate the instructional materials and techniques that they find in use in the schools. Videotaping would be useful here. Students could also be given the flexibility to design their own upper division courses of study to remediate their own weaknesses.

Another suggestion would be to place much more emphasis on the junior high. You can't ignore those kids, though most people try to do just that.

I hope you really use these questionnaires in developing a realistic program and a more stringent one. I'd like to help if I can. Please feel free to call me or get in touch with me.

Your Former Student

Not all the responses were quite so negative, but this is typical of many that express the same concerns and the same feelings of frustration. We appreciate these candid evaluations and the many specific suggestions for improving the teacher education program.

The respondents who are not presently teaching made very similar comments, but differed in two significant ways. First, as a group they consistently rated their student teaching lower than the teachers did: the most frequent ratings were fair and poor, as opposed to excellent and very good from the teachers. We are tempted to hypothesize that a less than satisfactory student teaching experience may have discouraged many of them from teaching. Others said that they had taught, but resigned for various reasons. According to one, "I was a basket case after two years." Second, as a group they consistently rated most of their academic courses higher than the teachers did. Perhaps, because they are not teaching, they draw on their educational background in a general way; whereas teachers are under constant pressure to use very specific knowledge. Many of the non-teachers commented that their education had helped them with organizing and writing skills, had given them more self-confidence, and had enriched their lives. One commented, "I can really impress my boss. He flunked English."

These questionnaires have been of great interest to use, especially in making us aware of how our graduates' perceptions of various courses differ from our own. Obviously we need more dialogue with students about their expectations and ours. We do intend to use many of the suggestions to improve our program. As this article has already indicated, we are moving in the direction of more and earlier exposure to the schools and greater emphasis on the junior high. Although bureaucracy and logistics are always difficult to surmount, we'll also try to implement as many other positive ideas as we can. Thank you all.

THINKING ABOUT A VACATION FOR NEXT SUMMER?

Did you know that a summer school in England or Scotland is one of the most enjoyable and least expensive vacations you can have? Imagine six weeks in London, Oxford, Edinburgh or Stratford-upon-Avon from 300 to 400 pounds or from $600 to $800 (it may be a little more next summer).

Room and board except lunch, side excursions (a little extra but well worth the cost) lectures, evening entertainment, small discussion groups, called tutorials, on the subject of your choice all with a group of very interesting people from all over the world plus plenty of time to go sight seeing and shopping, all this for so little cost and all tax deductable. In addition you can arrange with your own university for credit.

If you are interested, ask to have your name put on the mailing list and further information will be mailed as soon as it is available. Write to: Institute of International Education, 809 United Nations Plaza, New York, New York 10017.

TEACHER PREPARATION AT NORTHERN ARIZONA UNIVERSITY IN 1977

Deane Hargrave, Northern Arizona University

Attitudes, knowledge, and skills are the key words in the preparation of English teachers at Northern Arizona University today. The attitudes to be learned are of student acceptance--regardless of social, linguistic or ethnic background; of student-centered classrooms, so that the teacher becomes a guide or facilitator rather than an authoritarian figure; of fostering student development so that children and adolescents may become verbal, imaginative, creative, thinking adults. The knowledge is of responses to literature; of writing processes; of language, its acquisition, and uses; of oral and written communication; of reading processes; of nonprint media; also of activities, materials and methods of helping students learn, as well as means of evaluating that learning. Skills are numerous and not easily identified: some of them are perceiving differences among students, deciding which approaches to learning will best suit each student, determining which materials will best help each student, figuring out how to cause each student to develop the skills of reading, writing, listening and speaking that he/she will need.

Through the cooperation of the Colleges of Education and Arts and Sciences, teaching majors in Language Arts or English prepare themselves in three educational areas: general education, professional education, and in English.

I General Education

As do the other state universities, Northern Arizona University requires its prospective teachers to complete 45 semester hours in liberal arts courses. The breakdown of courses is as follows:

English Composition: two courses
State and Federal Constitution: one course
United States History: one course
Social and Behavioral Sciences
  (including General Psychology): two courses
Humanities and Arts: two courses
Science: one course
Mathematics: one course

In addition to these liberal arts hours, majors in elementary education who specialize in the language arts are required to complete 24 hours of course work in these supporting content areas: Communication Skills (3 hours); Social and Behavioral Sciences (9 hours); Natural Sciences (3-4 hours); Health and Physical Education (2-3 hours), and Fine Arts (5-6 hours). Students who choose secondary education with a teaching major in English must complete at least 20 hours of course work in a minor field, in addition to their hours in professional education, to which we now turn.

II Professional Education

Elementary education majors must complete a minimum of 34 semester hours in professional courses. The following courses are required:

EFD 200, Introduction to Education
ECI 301, Teaching Reading and Decoding Skills
ECI 303, Fundamentals of Reading Instruction
ECI 306, Science in the Elementary School
ECI 321, Elementary School Curriculum
ECI 324, Growth and Learning
ECI 330, Evaluation of Learning

The Professional Semester

During the senior year, students in elementary education spend one half of one semester in intensive study of teaching methods, after which they teach for eight weeks in local elementary schools. The courses required for the first half of the professional semester are:

ECI 300, Arithmetic in the Elementary School
ECI 304, Language Arts in the Elementary School
ECI 404, Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Problems
ECI 490, Student Teaching (Elementary)

Secondary education majors must complete a 25 semester hour course block which consists of the following courses:

EFD 200, Introduction to Education
EPS 225, Educational Psychology
ECI 303, Fundamentals of Reading (Secondary)
ECI 322, Secondary School Curriculum
ECI 330, Evaluation of Learning
ECI 404, Diagnosis and Correction of Reading Problems
ECI 430, High School Teaching Methods
ECI 495, Student Teaching (Secondary)

The last four listed courses are completed during the professional semester, which is conducted under an arrangement similar to that for elementary education majors.

III Language Arts and English

Prospective teachers of the Language Arts must complete 15 hours of course work in English and related fields. These hours are chosen under the joint supervision of advisors in the College of Education and the English Department.

In order to help students develop the attitudes and skills and to acquire the diverse knowledge necessary to English teaching, the Bachelor of Science in Education for English majors at NAU is primarily a flexible one that allows for individual differences in prior experiences, as well as in projected future experiences. There are only six courses (eighteen hours) specified out of thirty-five hours:

ENG 212, Major Principles in the Reading of Literature
ENG 311, Advanced Composition
ENG 318, English Linguistics
ENG 328, English Grammars
ENG 430, English Teaching Methods
SPEECH 210, Oral Interpretation

The remaining six courses are chosen by the student in conference with the advisor from a variety of English courses.

Rather than choose a major of thirty-five hours and a minor of twenty to twenty-four hours, a student may elect an extended major in English, which consists of fifty-three hours. Of these, forty-two must have English prefixes, but eleven may be in Speech/Theater, Drama, Journalism, Philosophy, Psychology, or some other English-related discipline. The extended major allows a student to specialize in an area such as speech, drama or language, as well as in the presentation of literature.

The B.S. in Education program in its present form was initiated by Dr. Virginia Alwin, who also began the first program for prospective English teachers at NAU in 1955.

Under her influence, the program has, and still does, recognized the advantages of personalizing instruction through choices of courses. However, individual experiences in the classroom are considered important as well in developing attitudes and skills; therefore, a close rapport has been developed between the English Department and the public junior and senior high schools so that university students are now tutoring students in these schools, observing classes, working as aides, and consulting with teachers. Likewise, English teachers from the junior and senior high schools are frequent guest lecturers in the English Methods class at the University.

The success of the program may be evaluated subjectively by the comments of cooperating teachers who work with student teachers from N.A.U.; however, objective data that may be used to evaluate the program are the numbers of graduates, their success in finding jobs and the kinds of jobs they get:

Sixty-eight degrees were awarded through the program during the past four years.

According to the N.A.U. Placement Office, all of the majors who applied for jobs teaching English through the Placement Office were able to find satisfactory teaching positions for 1976-77. (Most of the positions were in Arizona; one was in California, two in Oregon.)

The average starting salary for N.A.U. English teachers in 1976-77 was $9,538, over $1000 higher than the average starting salary for high school teachers in general in Arizona.

The most outstanding advantage of the Program at N.A.U. is the personal attention given each student, from the day he or she indicates a desire to teach English until the time when the student has been certified and a teaching contract has been signed. Meticulous advising and a genuine personal interest in each student should create, over a period of time, the attitudes that the student should exhibit eventually toward his/her pupils. Further, individual attention is possible at N.A.U. because of small class sizes. Although class sizes have varied for the different courses, the averages over the past five years have been:

ENG 212, Reading of Literature: 25
ENG 311, Advanced Composition: 19
ENG 328, Grammars: 22
ENG 318, Linguistics: 38
ENG 430, Methods: 11

Because of the small classes, each student becomes well known by the faculty; therefore, the attitudes of acceptance, self-worth and increasing capability are fostered in the students, as well as the desirable skills and necessary knowledge.

Finally, the essence of the teacher preparation program at NAU is student-centeredness: the individual human being who is being prepared to teach is the focus. The basic premise in teacher preparation is that as a result of the faculty's attitude of concern and dedication, the students will ultimately become dedicated, *caring* professionals.

THE SURVEY ON COMPOSITION TEACHING: A REPORT TO THE MEMBERSHIP

James R. Rankin, University of Arizona

In the spring of 1976 the newly formed Committee on Composition of the AETA decided to begin its work by circulating an opinionnaire. The Committee was interested in seeking out teachers' opinions about the goals of teaching writing and about the means for reaching these goals. As a first step, the opinionnaire tried to gauge teachers' attitudes toward writing and its teaching, or, toward what English teachers think and what they do.

A total of 74 persons responded to the survey on composition teaching. Of these, most were English majors in college, and they now find themselves teaching in a variety of schools. Very few have assistance in evaluating composition, and only a minority has attended institutes or in-service programs dealing with the teaching of composition. Of the 74 respondents, two teach in elementary school, twelve in junior high, forty-six in senior high, and fourteen in college.

For each of these four groups, here are more precise statistics on several key questions from the survey.

(A) Highest college degree held

Elementary: 100% master's
Junior High: 50% master's, 50 % bachelor's
Senior High: 2% doctor's, 71% master's, 27% bachelor's
College: 57% doctor's, 43% master's

(B) Semester hours (average) in courses in teaching composition

Elementar: 1.5
Junior High: 3.3
Senior High: 2.5
College: 3.5

(C) Years of teaching experience (average)

Elementary: 16.5
Junior High: 11.0
Senior High: 12.8
College: 13.4

(D) Portion of typical year of work devoted to composition

Elementary: --
Junior High: 27%
Senior High: 36%
College: 43%

Now to the opinionnaire itself. Obviously, this survey presents problems of interpretation and of generalization. Its sampling is skewed because 58 of the 74 respondents were high school teachers; its statistical representativeness is weak because only 74 of 500 addressees made returns. Nevertheless, it does offer some concrete starting points for the profession to look at, ponder, and build on. (For your convenience, the twenty-six items of the opinionnaire are reproduced as an appendix to this report, together with a brief explanation of certain computations for each item.)

It is gratifying to see that nine items on the opinionnaire invite the agreement of 70% or more of all respondents. Three other items score high with a solid majority. Many of these twelve items reflect an open attitude toward teaching composition and an awareness of recent trends. Thus 82% concur with the idea that growth in writing in the elementary school is enhanced by a broad, rich program in literature. And 83% stress that children and young adults, like other writers, compose largely for an audience, and the response of this audience is strategic in their growth toward more mature literacy. Along these same lines, 86% feel that writing assignments should be more extensive than the specification of a topic or list of topics, and 75% say that students should often "talk out" their compositions prior to writing. As for evaluation, 69% agree that class and teacher comment on expository writing should emphasize content, with a strong 90% calling for students to evaluate and grade their own papers as well as those of other students.

Most of the items that elicit heavy disagreement (a total of nine) also point to an understanding and acceptance of recent trends. For instance, 79% of the respondents deny that grades are the most effective way to evaluate compositions; 83% say "no" to the proposition that grades are the most effective way to motivate students to improve their writing; and 74% dispute the notion that every error on a student's composition should be indicated. Furthermore, 79% do not hold that weak students should be encouraged to write only short, simple sentences. And 68% maintain that beginning sentences with and, or, for, but is allowable.

Of course, several items produce sharp discrepancies in response. Five in particular show a cleavage that deserves attention. Of these five, three have a slight majority taking a position pro or con. They are the following items:

#4 Composition programs in the elementary grades should be directed primarily at encouraging students toward self-expression. (58% agree, 34% disagree, 8% no opinion)

#6. Correct English is established by the logical grammatical relationships within language. (37% agree, 51% disagree, 13% no opinion)

#12. Students should be required to prepare written outlines before they begin writing expository papers. (40% agree, 54% disagree, 6% no opinion)

The two remaining items run practically a dead heat:

#18 Teachers should write all the compositions that they assign to students. (50% agree, 42% disagree, 8% no opinion)

#19. Students who speak freely, fluently, and effectively are generally good writers. (48% agree, 48% disagree, 4% no opinion)

Many other items in the opinionnaire could have produced sharp division also. But they did not. For example, 70% of the respondents agree that the major obligation of instruction in composition is to help students learn and practice the conventions of standard, educated English. And 76% say that the formal research paper should be taught in high school to all college-bound students. In a similar vein, 61% maintain that assignments during the last two years of high school should require primarily expository writing.

In the other direction, but just as consistently, 73% disagree that specific penalties in grades (such as one point off for each spelling error) should be assigned for errors in compositions in order to insure fairness. And 76% deny that successful writing is achieved only if all themes are carefully corrected by the teacher. Finally, 70% do not believe that students should rewrite every paper.

What, then, are the respondents' major recommendations for improving the teaching of composition? Suggested priorities cover a wide range but split into two basic categories:

matters of policy and matters of pedagogical practice. Frequently these two blend as, for instance, when respondents call for setting up guidelines or criteria for evaluating compositions by examining sample essays from different schools throughout the state.

In the priorities listed by respondents, seven emphases keep recurring, in this order of importance:

(1) establishing institutes, workshops, in-service courses, and conferences on methods and approaches for teaching composition;

(2) publishing and disseminating materials to help the classroom teacher;

(3) upgrading teacher education programs;

(4) reducing class loads;

(5) determining and then spreading the word on evaluation procedures and techniques;

(6) urging teachers at all levels to emphasize basic elements of composition;

(7) setting and publicizing consistent goals and guidelines for composition programs

These seven priorities are culled from approximately 150 separate comments made by the respondents to the opinionnaire. Often these seven spill over into one another, particularly in the individual phrasings the respondents use.

Thus the call for workshops and conferences usually presupposes a stress on either the goals for composition study or on focused attention to constant problems--e.g., establishing criteria for grading or for making productive assignments. Similarly, the next most cited priority--publishing materials to help the classroom teacher--asks again and again for samples of successful teaching practices and procedures. And both these major concerns reflect the frequent appeals for setting consistent goals and guidelines for composition programs.

More specifically, it is profitable to look at some comments that emerge from the seven general categories. In these specifics the priorities take on life.

(1) Establishing workshops on methods and approaches. By far the most insistent comments underline demonstrations of effective practices. As a single instance, one respondent suggests the formation of a composition cadre to work through teacher centers, founded locally or in particular regions, in order to deal with the teaching of writing in various content areas.

(2) Publishing materials for teachers. Here many suggestions percolate throughout the opinionnaire: booklets on successful teaching practices; bibliographies for teachers; reviews of textbooks; practical lesson plans and units on composition; descriptions of ways to motivate students to write; brief commentaries on the most effective teaching methods and techniques.

(3) Upgrading teacher education programs. In this category the responses assume two forms: somehow get all teachers to realize that they are teachers of composition; require more background in composition for the certification of teachers, as in the recent state requirement in reading.

(4) Reducing class loads. Over and over the respondents say, "Make the classes smaller."

(5) Determining evaluation procedures The comments here emphasize two aspects: getting teachers to ask what to evaluate and why; looking for ways to accomplish evaluation better--perhaps by devising a standardized style sheet, or by studying samples of graded papers, or by examining practical and productive composition assignments.

(6) Emphasizing basic elements of composition. In this category respondents cite the importance of recognizing writing as a process of thinking and discovery. Closely allied is the advice to have teachers write themselves in order to understand better the process of composition. Several respondents also would like to establish a standard of skills for each grade and construct a position paper on the place of composition in the total curriculum.

(7) Setting goals for composition programs. The most persistent comment here echoes the last idea in category (6). Respondents stress the need for articulation among elementary, high school, and college programs.

In addition to these cumulative specifics, a sizable minority of respondents underscores a few other notable concerns. For instance, several teachers want to see an AETA-sponsored literary magazine for student writing and contests to promote excellence in student composing. Such commentary reflects extension of pedagogical practice. In regard to policy, several teachers state strongly their belief in the need for making administrators, boards of education, and the state department much more aware of the significance of composition, much more aware of the realization that composition involves heavy individualized instruction. The natural consequence of this thinking is, a few respondents assert, greater political activism for legislative change and development

In concluding this report, may I address a few remarks to all of us teachers of English. First, my thanks to the respondents for their completion of the opinionnaire and especially for their editorial additions and suggestions. I would welcome any further recommendations from you and from those who were unable to take part in the initial survey. Let's keep talking and communicating.

As we continue our work on improving the teaching of composition, let us steadily realize that we have much to offer one another and that we are not alone in our endeavors. For example, as I am writing this final paragraph, a letter from the Committee on Teaching and its Evaluation in Composition (CCCC) crosses my desk. It is one more indication of the importance that teaching composition deserves and the attention it is receiving. With concentrated effort and collaboration, we will improve our instruction in composition particularly and in our other subject matter generally. We may some day even see the accomplishment of George Sampson's proclamation in 1922 in English for the English: ". . . every teacher is a teacher of English because every teacher is a teacher in English."

Appendix

A word of explanation. The entire composition opinionnaire follows, including the directions and the labels for use in responding.

After each item (1-26), three sets of figures appear. The first set, marked (A), shows the combination of those who responded SA (strongly agree) and A (agree). The second set, marked (D), shows the combination of those who responded SD (strongly disagree) and D (disagree). The third set, marked (N), shows those who responded N (no opinion).

In each set of figures the first number represents the percentage of total respondents who chose that particular category. The numbers within parentheses count the actual respondents according to the level of teaching, from elementary to junior high to senior high to college. Thus, for item #1, 70% of those responding agreed with the statement. Of this

70% one was an elementary teacher, 9 were junior high teachers, 34 were senior high teachers, and 8 were college teachers.

In all instances percentages have been rounded to the nearest whole. The total number of respondents does not always equal 74 because items sometimes were omitted or sometimes were answered with two responses and therefore could not be counted.

COMPOSITION OPINIONNAIRE

Please circle the one label that most nearly represents your response to each of the following statements.

SA (strongly agree) means complete agreement.
A (agree) means definite but not total agreement.
D (disagree) means definite but not total disagreement.
SD (strongly disagree) means complete disagreement.
N (no opinion) means no opinion either way; your response is neutral.

1. The major obligation of instruction in composition is to help students learn and practice the conventions of standard, educated English.
(A) 70% (1+9+34+8)
(D) 29% (0+3+12+6)
(N) 1% (1+0+0+0)

2. Grades are the most effective way to evaluate compositions.
(A) 18% (0+1+11+1)
(D) 79% (2+11+32+12)
(N) 3% (0+0+2+0)

3. In order to insure fairness, specific penalties in grades should be assigned for errors in compositions--for example, one point off for each spelling error.
(A) 26% (0+6+11+2)
(D) 73% (2+6+34+12)
(N) 1% (0+0+1+0)

4. Composition programs in the elementary grades should be directed primarily at encouraging students toward self-expression.
(A) 58% (1+9+22+11)
(D) 34% (1+3+20+1)
(N) 8% (0+0+4+2)

5. Grades are the most effective way to motivate students to improve their writing.
(A) 13% (0+1+7+1)
(D) 83% (2+11+34+13)
(N) 4% (0+0+3+0)

6. Correct English is established by the logical grammatical relationships within language.
(A) 37% (0+9+17+0)
(D) 51% (1+2+21+12)
(N) 13% (1+1+5+2)

7. Successful writing is achieved only if all themes are carefully corrected by the teacher.
(A) 17% (0+4+7+1)
(D) 76% (2+7+33+13)
(N) 7% (0+0+5+0)

8. The techniques of writing and documenting a formal research paper should be taught in high school to all college-bound students.
(A) 76% (2+11+38+5)
(D) 22% (0+1+6+9)
(N) 3% (0+0+2+0)

9. Assignments during the last two years of high school should require primarily expository writing.
(A) 61% (0+3+32+8)
(D) 35% (2+8+9+6)
(N) 4% (0+0+3+0)

10. Composition courses should include instruction in viewing film and television and in reading newspapers and magazines.
(A) 66% (2+8+29+8)
(D) 25% (0+2+13+3)
(N) 9% (0+0+4+2)

11.	In order to avoid errors in sentence structure, weak students should be encouraged to write only short, simple sentences.	(A) 17% (0+3+8+1) (D) 79% (2+8+35+10) (N) 4% (0+0+2+1)
12.	Students should be required to prepare written outlines before they begin writing expository papers.	(A) 40% (1+4+21+3) (D) 54% (1+5+22+11) (N) 6% (0+2+2+0)
13.	Students should not be allowed to begin sentences with and, or, for, but.	(A) 29% (0+3+18+0) (D) 68% (2+8+26+14) (N) 3% (0+0+2+0)
14.	Students should be discouraged from using the first person pronoun in their compositions.	(A) 29% (1+2+17+0) (D) 63% (1+7+24+11) (N) 7% (0+1+3+1)
15.	Growth in writing in the elementary school is enhanced by a broad, rich program in literature.	(A) 82% (2+10+35+13) (D) 14% (0+1+8+1) (N) 4% (0+0+3+0)
16.	Children and young adults, like other writers, compose largely for an audience, and the response of this audience is strategic in their growth toward more mature literacy.	(A) 83% (2+10+35+13) (D) 11% (0+1+6+1) (N) 6% (0+0+4+0)
17.	Growth in writing throughout a year's span is marked by spurts rather than by equal or nearly equal increments.	(A) 81% (2+9+34+13) (D) 11% (0+1+7+0) (N) 8% (0+1+5+0)
18.	Teachers should write all the compositions that they assign to students.	(A) 50% (0+8+21+7) (D) 42% (2+2+20+6) (N) 8% (0+1+4+1)
19.	Students who speak freely, fluently, and effectively are generally good writers.	(A) 48% (1+7+23+4) (D) 48% (1+3+22+9) (N) 4% (0+1+1+1)
20.	Students should often "talk out" their compositions prior to writing.	(A) 75% (0+8+36+10) (D) 11% (1+1+3+3) (N) 14% (1+2+6+1)
21.	Students should rewrite every paper.	(A) 27% (0+1+12+7) (D) 70% (2+10+32+7) (N) 3% (0+0+2+0)
22.	Every error on a student's composition should be indicated.	(A) 21% (1+2+9+3) (D) 74% (1+9+32+10) (N) 4% (0+0+2+1)
23.	Students should be asked to evaluate and grade their own papers as well as those of other students.	(A) 90% (1+10+40+13) (D) 8% (1+1+3+1) (N) 1% (0+0+1+0)
24.	Students should have freedom in selecting the topics for their compositions.	(A) 86% (2+11+36+11) (D) 11% (0+0+7+1) (N) 3% (0+0+1+0)

25. Class and teacher comment on expository writing and other forms of factual composing should emphasize content.

(A) 69% (1+9+32+6)
(D) 20% (0+0+8+6)
(N) 11% (1+2+4+1)

26. Writing assignments should be more extensive than the specification of a topic or list of topics.

(A) 86% (2+9+38+12)
(D) 7% (0+0+5+0)
(N) 7% (0+2+2+1)

OBSERVATIONS OF AN ENGLISH/ED GRADUATE

Suzanna Gutierrez Colby, Chaparral High School
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The common complaint of many Education students, both undergraduate and graduate, is that the majority of educational courses were a waste of time. The courses had little, if any, content and could be passed with little, if any, effort on the student's part. The only qualification for getting an A was perfecting the art of B.S.ing. More vocal or aggressive students were assured of an A even though their limited personal experiences were used exclusively to suggest answers to various educational dilemmas posed in class.

Outside reading might be encouraged, but references to these sources were minimal. In a graduate class, consisting of doctoral students, a classmate confided to a group of us that she could fulfill the class requirements while staying home. We agreed. The in-class routine consisted of discussing moot situations and repeating activities I remembered from undergraduate classes. In general, class content was scanty. Topic such as discipline and lesson planning, although necessary, seemed to dominate most of the education classes from the freshman to the senior level. Student presentations were usually useless for minimum research was required to develop the topics. The presentations were often repetitious and boring with both the presenter and audience receiving little valuable information. As a culminating activity, some instructors asked for class evaluations, welcoming suggestions for improvements. However, these suggestions seemed to be ignored.

So it seems most student teachers, dubious of their teaching preparation, are surprised to discover that what they'd learned in class is impractical when confronted with the real classroom peopled with real students. Despite this pessimistic view, there does seem to be an attempt by a few to improve the quality of teacher preparation. The On-Site program offered by Arizona State University, which precedes student teaching, allows education students the opportunity to work with teachers and students while being supervised by ASU instructors. The On-Site program affords future teachers the experience of observing and participating in actual classroom situations on a regular basis. Theoretically, from this experience students decide if teaching satisfies their expectations. There seem to be some weaknesses in this program as well as in other teacher training programs. An On-Site student who obviously doesn't exhibit teacher potential isn't weeded from the program, but is allowed to finish and subsequently to student teach. One such On-Site student, although knowledgeable in his major field, suffered from extreme personal problems and had difficulties communicating with the students as well as his colleagues. This was a well known problem. Some discussions between the On-Site student, supervisor, and cooperating teacher were held. But much to the dismay of the cooperating teacher, this student finished the course, received an A, and did his student teaching the next semester. The student teaching experience proved a disaster for all concerned. Unfortunately, this is not an isolated case in teaching programs. Definitely more career counseling needs to be instigated during the teacher training programs. It's possible this individual may never teach in a public school; yet he may continue his studies, eventually becoming a lecturer at some university--a situation which would be just as tragic. Students need to be screened, like lawyers and plumbers before entering the profession. Screening is but one method that might be used to help prepare better qualified future teachers.

The creation of some classes in contemporary problems is also necessary for the beginning teacher. Could I have used a course in Education and Politics the year I replaced a teacher at midterm (my first job)! Three weeks later I was confronted with a teacher strike! I knew nothing of scabs, school district problems, financing, personnel policies, tenure, teacher rights, negotiating teams, the NEA or the FTA. I rapidly learned a harsh lesson about teachers and administrators under acute pressure. Some inkling that schoolteaching is more than lesson planning and classroom control is necessary to most potential teachers, who are greatly or even somewhat idealistic.

There is talk in Education classes of individualizing, designing open concept schools, team teaching, motivating students with games and fun, fun, fun. This lip service to "modern" teaching is dangerous for two reasons.

First, few professors advocating these concepts, although having read about and visited these learning environments, have never taught in an "open concept" (whatever that means) school building, thus, they do not realize the often demanding, unique problems that arise, and which can only be solved by building interior walls between learning areas. The addition of these new walls costs money, and spending this money, plus having to admit defeat, is painful. After all, in an Education class the "new methods" sound terrific and so easy to implement. Thus, courses stressing the realistic advantages and disadvantages of both traditional and modern methods should be thoroughly and unemotionally examined.

Secondly, the backlash to motivating students with a continuous diet of games, entertainment, and promises of fun have led to more non-readers, non-writers, non-articulate speakers, and non-thinkers than ever because instruction in the basics of English is often tedious not only for the students but also for the teacher. And the teacher is cautioned not to do anything that might "turn off" the pupils. It's easier to do something else that is less challenging, assuring all of immediate success. This technique may be necessary for some students; but, in general, it is a cop-out for the majority of public school students. Basic knowledge of the function of the English language is vital, for what musician can compose, what doctor can diagnose, without a command of the primary skills of his field?

English/Education majors, particularly, need a course that reviews basic grammar rules and essay writing skills. Most perform these functions automatically and adequately but have no idea where to begin instructing others in how the English language operates. This is one reason many beginning teachers abandon teaching fundamental skills in favor of something else in which they feel more secure.

Possibly the only way to learn to teach is to get into a classroom and fend for oneself. However, while the novice is learning the trade, his novitiate can prove detrimental to the students' progress. Beginning teachers need knowledge and experience that will make them more efficient the first time they deal with students and colleagues; knowledge that deals with real issues in real classrooms, and experiences that take place in those classrooms, under the close supervision of a master teacher.

THE USE OF CLASS CLIMATE INVENTORIES IN ENGLISH TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

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INTRODUCTION

For the past three years, as a student teacher supervisor, I have been directly involved with a variety of urban, suburban, and rural school district English programs I have sensed a growing movement in many of our participating school districts toward establishing an environment that encourages a wider range of student response to language This shift in focus has raised some significant challenges to English teacher preparation programs, since response-centered activity does transform the physical structure, content, and methodology of the classroom. Some obvious changes in the physical structure of the response-centered classroom are individualized instruction, small discussion groups, and an increased use of media and learning resource centers. An increasing emphasis on student expression in the composing process, the importance of visual literacy, and a wider acceptance of adolescent literature are basic examples of content changes occurring in many of our school district programs. The non-directive nature of many response-centered activities has altered the role of the classroom teacher. No longer concerned with being the focal point of instruction all period, (s)he can become--depending upon the situation--facilitator, mediator, listener, essentially, the person responsible for creating and maintaining a classroom climate that promotes language growth from within. This shift in role creates some major methodological changes in English teacher preparation programs. My primary focus in this article will be on one of those changes: the use of pupils' perceptions of classroom activity in maintaining a favorable learning atmosphere.

I will list some concerns our student teachers have expressed about classroom activities they have initiated and suggest some effective paper-and-pencil measures that have been most helpful in assessing pupils' perceptions of classroom activity This will be followed by a discussion of some of the advantages of employing these paper-and-pencil measures--called class climate inventories--in a variety of instructional settings. Finally, I will list some sources of information that will be helpful to anyone interested in knowing more about these unique measures.

STUDENT TEACHER CONCERNS

Although by no means complete, the following questions reflect the kinds of concerns student teachers have expressed in designing and initiating response-centered activities in the classroom.

(1) Why did my first period class spend an entire period discussing "Auto Wreck" while my fifth period class expressed stony indifference?

(2) Since my classes are so large and I'm only here for eight weeks, how can I ever get to know pupils well enough for them to be candid with me about their perceptions of classroom activity?

(3) Are there ways I can find out whether or not I should modify this activity?

(4) Why is so much socializing occurring in some of the small group discussions?

(5) How can I possibly keep up with all of the small group interaction?

(6) What were student reactions to today's class meeting?

(7) Should I re-design this entire unit or merely some of the exercises?

(8) What were student reactions to this entire unit of instruction?

I am not implying, nor even suggesting, that these concerns could not be dealt with just in the normal, day-to-day interaction between the master teacher and the student teacher. One of the major advantages school districts provide is the opportunity for student teachers to draw upon a master teacher's experience and expertise prior to accepting the full responsibility of a classroom teacher. What I am suggesting is that the value of such interaction can be augmented by drawing upon pupil perceptions of the classroom. Pupil perceptions can add a very important and often-times missing dimension to effective activity planning.

In addition to advice from the master teacher, there are at least three other ways of dealing with these concerns. Many experienced teachers might depend upon intuition. Student teacher insights have not been tempered with a large degree of classroom experience so relying largely upon intuition, at an early stage in their careers, may lead them to being overly optimistic about the success of classroom activities. It is all too easy to overgeneralize and say "They really liked that video-tape" based on a population of only one student's remark after class. I would certainly not rule out intuition as a good starting point; however, there are some other ways that offer a more direct assessment of pupil perceptions of the class.

One of them is setting aside class time for open-ended discussion. Such discussion may prove beneficial but may be limiting. Pupil response can often be dominated by a few vocal students. There may be a portion of the class that will significantly alter their response or choose not to express their response because of the public nature of whole-class discussion. Some advantages to the class discussion approach are that while intuition may be more dependent upon the teacher's perspective, class discussion certainly draws upon the pupils' perspective. It may also build upon it since very often one remark by a pupil will suggest an additional insight to another class member.

Finally, pupil perceptions of class activity may be approached by asking for their response in writing. For a number of years, as a classroom teacher, I made it a regular practice to ask pupils to "Write a paragraph listing your reactions to the unit we just completed." Very often these assessments would yield some valuable pupil insights that were most helpful in planning future units. I found that some students had trouble with the non-directive nature of the assessment and would submit paragraphs filled with compliments, many underserved, and make observations about how much they liked my leisure suits Since it wasn't an assignment I asked them not to sign their names, and many would choose not to respond at all. The major disadvantage to this approach to assessing pupil perceptions is that the responses are not focused. A way of sharpening the focus is through the use of some very effective paper-and-pencil measures called class climate inventories.

CLASS CLIMATE INVENTORIES

Class climate inventories provide a focused way of assessing pupil perceptions of classroom activity. They have proven very successful in approaching some questions I listed earlier. I will be discussing five of these unique measures taken from Alfred H. Gorman's Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process of Education (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1969). More will be said about this book, which unfortunately is out of print, in the final section of this article. The five measures that have been most helpful to student teachers in assessing pupil perceptions of classroom activity are the following:

(1) EXERCISE REACTION SHEET. Primarily designed for use in a small group setting, but it can be adapted as a single class exercise reaction by merely having pupils complete the first and last two questions. The inventory stresses the value of self-evaluation and interacting within the group.

EXERCISE REACTION SHEET

Name____________________ Class________________ Group No.______

In terms of subject matter I learned. . .
Little Some A Great Deal
1 2 3 4 5 6

In terms of getting to know each other, I know. . .
Little Some A Great Deal
1 2 3 4 5 6

My group. . .
Did not Cooperate Worked together to some extent Worked quite well
1 2 3 4 5 6

If I could repeat the experience, I would. . .
Act the same Change a little Change A Great Deal
1 2 3 4 5 6

I now feel that getting to know others in the class is of. . .
Little Value Great Value Vital
1 2 3 4 5 6

My overall reaction to the experience was. . .
Poor Good Excellent
1 2 3 4 5 6

It could be improved by:

(2) CLASS MEETING REACTION. Most helpful in assessing pupil perceptions of single class meeting. Use of the symbols makes it possible to examine inventories over a period of time and still protect pupil's anonymity.

CLASS MEETING REACTION

In order to make the class more valuable to you, it would be helpful to know your feelings about what is going on. You need not sign the sheet, but make up a symbol which you can remember and place it on the line provided. You will use this symbol again.

Symbol________________

Circle one number for each question. #1 is extremely low; #7 is extremely high. Explain your rating on the left.

My personal reaction to the class is: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comment:

My reaction to this session ______ (Date) is: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

Comment:

For the class to improve:

I should: The teacher should:

(3) REACTIONNAIRE. A most valuable class climate inventory, by far the most widely used by my student teachers. It may be used in large or small group setting and the final question supplies pupils with an anonymous communicative "safety valve."

REACTIONNAIRE

Symbol________________

Responding to the questions below will give you the opportunity to work with your classmates in analyzing and improving the activities of this class.

1. How would you describe your personal activity? (Check one)

   Quiet___ Neither Quiet nor very active___ Quite Active Participating Frequently___
   Seldom Participating___

2. What has been your reaction to the class thus far? Is it meeting your needs? Why or why not?

3. How could the class be improved?

4. What is on your mind that you wish you could say in class?

(4) GROUP EVALUATION. This inventory is particularly helpful in obtaining focused response to the group interactions. A large number of POOR and FAIR ratings by members of the group would let you know they need some personal attention.

GROUP EVALUATION

Symbol______________Date______________Group No.____________

	Poor	Fair	?	Good	Excellent
My general reaction to the experience	1	2	3	4	5
Efficiency of group in doing job	1	2	3	4	5

Involvement of members in doing job	1	2	3	4	5
How effective was I?	1	2	3	4	5

Problems in group as I see them.   What I can do to help.

How effective is the teacher?	1	2	3	4	5

How could he better meet the needs of myself and the class?

(5) POST UNIT REACTION. This final inventory is an excellent summative measure

POST UNIT REACTION

Symbol______________

Your frank and thoughtful reactions to the unit of teaching we have just completed should be helpful in evaluating what we have done and in planning for the future.

Circle the appropriate numbers. #1 is extremely low; #7 is extremely high.

My general reaction to this unit is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My interest in the subject is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
My feeling about this class as a nice place to come to is:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
The amount of my personal learning in this unit was:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Teacher direction was:	Too Much		Too Little			Just Right	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
As a result of this unit, my ability to participate has changed:	Not at all			Some		Greatly	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

High spots of the unit were:
1.
2.
3.

Low spots of the unit were:
1.
2.
3.

ADVANTAGES OF CLASS CLIMATE INVENTORIES

As the movement toward incorporating response-centered activity into school district English programs becomes more evident, it becomes vitally important to know how pupils *feel* about the classroom environment. These activities will not flourish in a tense or captious classroom atmosphere. Class climate inventories, the ones I have mentioned in this article and some others that will be briefly covered in the next section of this article, offer some definite advantages to English teacher preparation programs.

(1) One of the chief advantages to student teachers is that the inventories are a concrete way of assessing something that is usually approached by intuition. These inventories do not necessarily supplant intuition; they augment intuitive insights.

(2) They offer the advantage of being focused and well-defined. Often, when pupils are asked to write a few sentences or a paragraph assessing a unit of instruction or class activity, the responses lack focus. Class climate inventories focus pupil response on a specific component of class activity.

(3) Many of the inventories suggest to pupils that maturity and self-direction are necessary for the success of an activity since many of the inventories ask pupils to indicate *their own* personal role in the success of the activity.

(4) The inventories also communicate to pupils that assessment is a two-way street, particularly if inventories are employed with any degree of regularity. Pupils feel that they have a voice in assessing the success of an activity. A tangential value is that they not only encourage classroom interaction, but that they keep communication channels open (e.g., "What is on your mind that you wish you could say in class?").

(5) One of my student teachers advanced a persuasive argument in favor of using one of the inventories, the reactionnaire, as an assignment in expressive discourse.

(6) When applied as a measure of group effectiveness inventories convey that while socialization can occur in a small group setting, there is a degree of "accountability" as well. As a group, students' responsibility extends not only to themselves but to the members of the group as well.

(7) Many of the inventories convey the complexity of the English classroom to pupils and student teachers alike. Pupils gain insight into the vast amount of interaction needed for a successful learning experience. Student teachers soon learn that even the most carefully planned activity may not be successful if pupils are occupied with other concerns. One of my student teachers' feelings were assuaged when she discovered that a less-than-successful activity had occurred the day of school play auditions. Many of the members of her class were involved and were preoccupied with the auditions.

(8) A very important aspect of student teacher use of class climate inventories is that they convey to pupils a most important message: the person working with you in the classroom is a competent professional, interested in assessing several different levels of classroom performance.

(9) Another important aspect of the inventories is that many of them preserve the anonymity of the pupil. They do provide a way of examining an individual pupil's responses to several inventories by asking the pupil to select a *symbol* and use it throughout the course of responding. One or more pupils can be appointed as "symbol keeper(s)" in case pupils forget what their symbol is.

(10) Finally, class climate inventories are actually a form of student rating and can promote client satisfaction, in this case pupil satisfaction. In Educational Evaluation (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1975), W. James Popham reports "As one of several indicators of a teacher's competence, student ratings appear to have something to contribute on the client-contentment continuum if nothing else." (p. 287)

CLASS CLIMATE INVENTORY SOURCES OF INFORMATION

There are at least four excellent sources of information about class climate inventories. Earlier, I mentioned Alfred H. Gorman's Teachers and Learners: The Interactive Process of Education (Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1969). The five inventories I outlined are from the Gorman book. You might check with a college or university library to see if you can borrow a copy since it is no longer in print. Gorman offers numerous examples of class climate inventories and some very appealing theoretical arguments in favor of wide use of these measures.

Some of the Gorman inventories are reprinted in Charles R. Cooper and Alan C. Purves' A Guide to Evaluation (Lexington, Mass.: Ginn & Company, 1973). Basically a guide that accompanies their RESPONDING series, this work contains an entire section devoted to constructing and administering class climate inventories. In addition to the section on class climate inventories, this source contains a variety of evaluation measures and the rationale for employing them. It is a most important source for anyone interested in the response-centered classroom.

In 1966 Science Research Associates published Diagnosing Classroom Learning Environments by Robert Fox, Margaret Barron Luszki and Richard Schmuch. Some of their inventories are also reprinted in Cooper/Purves. This work contains some unique measures of pupil perceptions of how others feel about the class, and some teacher ratings and pupil perceptions about a single class period.

All of these sources contain some excellent measures that can be typed onto a ditto or stencil, run off and used more than once. In the event that you might be interested in developing your own class climate inventories I would recommend one other source of information. One of the very best sources of information about attitude measurement is A.N. Oppenheim, Questionnaire Design and Attitude Measurement (New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1966). Oppenheim devotes an entire chapter to the design of checklists, rating scales and inventories (pp. 81-104).

EXIT 19: ENGLISH TEACHING IN AMERICA'S THIRD CENTURY

Ken Davis, University of Kentucky

Human beings have always been interested in the future. The *I Ching* and the tarot deck, the Ragnarok myth, and the Revelation of St. John are all evidence of this interest Today, however, more than ever before, the future has become a fad. Books about the future have been among the biggest-sellers of recent years, and their authors' names--Toffler and Fuller and Kahn--have replaced Spiro Agnew as household words. Thousands of courses on the future are being offered in elementary and high schools, colleges, and universities. Innumerable organizations, institutions, think tanks, pressure groups, books, magazines, newsletters, newspaper stories, television programs, and movies bombard us with their projections of probable, possible, and preferable futures.

In an effort to cope with this overload of futures information, I offer this consumer's guide to the future. I don't propose to provide any new insight into the future, any new prophecies or forecasts. Nor do I offer any specific teaching methods. Instead, I hope to outline four major ways of looking at the future--four themes that run through the great body of futures material available today--and suggest the implications of each for the teaching of English. As my title indicates, the time frame I'll deal with is the next hundred years--America's third century.

When I first came across a sign on the Baltimore Beltway--a sign that read "Exit 19--Future"--I was startled, as if I had just turned a corner into the Twilight Zone and discovered a road I could take into tomorrow. But as the metaphor began to grow on me, I realized that if the Eastern religions can see time as a stream, surely we in the West can see it as an interstate highway. And if the future is a road lying before us, then ways of looking at the future are the road signs. So with this metaphor in mind, let's begin with our first highway sign--and the way of looking at the future it represents.

Throughout the history of the human race, the dominant view of the future has been a sign reading "One Way," a view that the future will be a simple continuation of the past For the last century or so, this view has meant a future of continued technological growth. Robert Theobald, from whom I borrow the general categories for this discussion, calls people who hold this view "positive extrapolists." That is, they feel that the future can be extrapolated from the past and that it will be generally good.

Most of our students, when we ask them to predict the future, turn out to *be* positive extrapolists. Influenced as they are by traditionally technological science fiction, and its adaptations to film and TV, they tend to paint a future of ever more sophisticated technology--of towering megalopoli, of interplanetary and even interstellar travel.

The ultimate dream of this kind of futurist is perhaps best expressed by a character in Karl Capek's *R.U.R.*:

> There will be no poverty. All work will be done by machines. Everybody will be free from worry and liberated from the degradation of labor. Everybody will live only to *perfect* himself. . . .Nobody will get bread at the cost of life and hatred. The Robots will wash the feet of the beggar and prepare a bed for him in his house. Man shall be free and supreme; he shall have no other aim, no other labor, no other care than to perfect himself. He shall serve neither matter nor man. He will not be a machine and a device for production. He will be *Lord* of creation.

Well, few positive extrapolists today are that extravagant in their rhetoric, but many do see a future in which technology meets more and more of humanity's needs. Herman Kahn, for example, once widely regarded as a theorist of doom--the model for Kubrick's Dr. Strangelove--now appears to be our leading technological optimist. He sounds much like the R.U.R. character when he writes:

> New resources, technology, and economic growth often produce new problems and crises but they can still be used to solve problems, improve efficiency, and upgrade the quality of life. . . . The 21st century is likely to see a post-industrial economy in which most of the more desperate and seemingly eternal problems of human poverty will have been solved or greatly alleviated. . . . The post-industrial society and culture which will eventually accompany the post-industrial economy should be close to a humanistic utopia by most historic standards.[1]

If Kahn and his fellow positive extrapolists are right about the future, what will that mean for us English teachers? As a start, we might look at the most important work on the future of our profession, Edmund Farrell's Deciding the Future. While Dr. Farrell himself, in this excellent work, escapes the limitations of any single vision of the future, the panel of experts who collectively do the forecasting in the book take a generally positive extrapolist approach. That is, they see a future for our profession that is generally positive and that is a continuation of present trends. Among their predictions:

--"a more scientific approach...to instruction."

--widespread use of electronic media in teaching, including widespread use of computers--even in the home.

--a high school curriculum that includes "content and concepts now taught in college or graduate school."

--more interdisciplinary courses.

--better prepared teachers.

--greater variety and availability of printed materials.

--greater flexibility of instruction.

--continued financial support for schools.

--increased role of private industry in education.

--less emphasis on teaching of basic reading skills; more emphasis on multi-media learning than on print.[2]

That's only one way of looking at the future, however. In recent years, a very different view of the future has achieved currency. People who hold this view agree that present trends will likely continue, but unlike the positive extrapolists, they see those trends leading not to utopia but to a road sign reading "Dead End." Theobald calls these futurists "negative extrapolists."

The book that has most come to represent this view of the future is the report to the Club of Rome called Limits to Growth. The authors of this report are careful not to forecast doom, only warn against a doom that will come if present trends continue. Still, they have provided the most widely discussed statement of the negative extrapolist position. Making use of a sophisticated computer simulation of the world, they conclude that present trends in population growth, food production, environmental destruction, and resource use will surely result in world catastrophe within the next century. Even at that, their estimate is more conservative than that of former UN Secretary-General U Thant who said in 1969:

> I do not wish to seem overdramatic, but I can only conclude from the information available to me as Secretary-General that the Members of the United Nations have perhaps ten years left in which to subordinate their ancient quarrels and launch a global partnership to curb the arms race, to improve the human environment, to defuse the population explosion, and to supply the required momentum to development efforts. If such a global partnership is not forged within the next decade, then I very much fear that the problems I have mentioned will have reached such staggering proportions that they will be beyond our capacity to control.[3]

In the long run, of course, this view of the future holds no role for English teachers--or any other member of the human species. In the short run, however, the ten to one hundred years left before the end of the world, what do the negative extrapolists see us doing?

Members of the Educational Policy Research Center at Syracuse answer that question with what they call the "ODP" hypothesis. In the future, they say, educators, like everyone else, will be "older, dumber, and poorer."[4]

To say we will be older in the future seems a simple-minded observation, akin to Harding's announcement that "the future lies ahead." But in fact, population in the U.S. is growing fastest in the upper age groups; we are becoming an older society. For the schools, as for our culture as a whole, this may mean that we are becoming more set in out ways, less willing to change. Without too much imagination we can envision a school of the year 2020 filled with octagenerian English teachers, busily drilling their students on 1960's-vintage transformational grammar, and offering no literature more recent than Brautigan.

And, say the boys from Syracuse, we will not only be older, but dumber. Knowledge is increasing exponentially, far beyond any person's ability to absorb even a small segment of it. Similarly, the problems of our world are increasing in complexity far beyond any person's ability to understand, much less solve, them. The English teacher of the next century will necessarily be a pedant, keeping up with only a miniscule part of the field.

Finally, we will be poorer. As the world's economy continues to slow, winding down toward its inevitable collapse, less and less money will be avilable for any education, much less a discipline like English. Schools will close; teachers will join breadlines--until the day there is no more bread.

A third class of futurists, however, reject the views of both the positive and negative extrapolists. Dubbed by Theobald as "romantics," they contend that the future will not be a linear extension of the past. Instead, they suggest, we are now at one of a very few major turning points, or "Detour" signs, in the line of human history--a transition equal in magnitude to the change from hunting and fishing societies to agricultural society, or from agricultural society to our present industrial culture. To these futurists, tomorrow will be not only quantitatively different but also qualitatively different from today.

Perhaps the first of the romantic futurists to gain wide popularity was Charles Reich author of The Greening of America. In this book, Reich claims:

> There is a revolution coming. It will not be like revolutions of the past. It will originate with the individual and with culture, and it will change the political structure only as its final act. . . . It is now spreading with amazing rapidity, and already our laws, institutions, and social structures are changing in consequence. It promises a higher reason, a more human community, and a new and liberated individual. Its ultimate creation will be a new and enduring wholeness and beauty. . .
>
> This is the rebellion of the new generation. Their protest and rebellion, their culture, clothes, music, drugs, ways of thought and liberated lifestyle are not a passing fad. . . . The whole emerging pattern. . . makes sense and is part of a consistent philosophy. It is both necessary and inevitable, and in time it will include not only youth, but all people in America.[5]

If extrapolation from the past is ruled out by romantics like Reich, then predicting the future role of English teachers--or anyone else--becomes impossible. But perhaps we can fantasize, with Ivan Illich and others, a future in which learning is the major human activity. In such a world, educational systems will have changed radically. Their dominant feature will be diversity; they will be Skinnerian and Rogerian, centralized and localized, more technological and more humane.

In such a deschooled society, English teachers will no longer exist as such. But people like us, under whatever name, surely *will*--in abundance. A culture whose major activity is no longer industry but learning will have great need of communication specialists. Paul Goodman, in his last book, talked of a trend in human civilization away from complex poetic language toward simplified discursive language. One wonders if this trend might be reversed after the kind of major social transformation the romantics describe.

Similarly, the teaching of literature, now mostly a narrowly intellectual activity, might return to its former emphasis on the *whole* human being. In this kind of future, literature might once again be taught as an experience which has physical as well as mental effects, which can be a source of peak experiences, which can serve as an organizing force in the organism.

Our fourth way of looking at the future is like a traffic control sign, giving many options, with the lanes that lead to them. It combines aspects of the first three; for this reason, Theobald calls people who view the future this way "synergists." The future, according to this view, is not a *given*; it is not a predetermined sequence of events which we can only adapt to as it unfolds. Rather, it is argued, the future is *conditional*; it is a result of our actions in the present. Or, viewed in a slightly different way, there is not *a* future, but a large number of alternative futures for us to choose among.

Perhaps the most careful exposition of this view can be found in the work of various researchers at the Stanford Research Institute. Several years ago, these people set out to develop a set of "alternative future histories" for the United States. With the help of a computer, they defined some 20,000 combinations of variables that could describe a society. By eliminating descriptions that were not "internally self-consistent" or not "likely to occur by the year 2000," and by grouping similar descriptions, they were able to identify about forty alternative pictures of the United States in the year 2000; to these they gave evocative names like "Garrison State," "Socialist Success," "1984," and "Statisfied Plenty."[6]

The researchers then constructed a "tree" diagram, with roots in the present and with branches extending to the forty possibilities for the year 2000. "The 'branch points,'" they write, " . . . are of particular significance since they identify crucial choices between alternative futures." From a detailed study of this "tree," the Stanford researchers conclude that "of some 40 feasible future histories, there are very few that manage to avoid some period of serious trouble between now and 2050."[7]

Most of this "trouble" is caused by what the Stanford team call the "world macroproblem." This, of course, is the same combination that the negative extrapolists warned us against earlier in this discussion: expanding population, increasing pollution, declining resources, and increasing military technology.

Still, many synergists--this fourth group of futurists--are not yet convinced that the world macroproblem is insoluble. Many, like Buckminster Fuller, while not accepting an extrapolist future, nonetheless believe that technology *can* be used to bring about the kind of utopia the positive extrapolists predict. But even those synergists who think a technological solution is possible assert that it must be accompanied by the kind of cultural transformation the romantics talk about. The Stanford researchers, for example, found several branches of their tree that manage to escape the world macroproblem, but only by means of a dramatic shift in values and perceptions.

So, in summary, this fourth kind of futurist says that the negative extrapolists are right about the seriousness of the problems facing us, the positive extrapolists are at least partly right about the power of technology to solve problems, and the romantics are right about the magnitude of cultural transformation that needs to occur for the problems to be solved. Perhaps the clearest statement of the synergist position is from the *Whole Earth Catalog*: "We are as gods, and might as well get at it." Or to be even more precise, "We are as gods, and *better* get good at it."

Given this synergist position, what is our role as English teachers? How can *we* help the world "get good at it?"

First, it seems to me, we can continue to provide training in basic communication skills. If the world macroproblem is to be solved at all, it will be by people working together, talking and writing to each other. As William Stafford has said:

> The signals we give--yes or no, maybe--should be clear:
> the darkness around us is deep.[8]

But if we are content only to turn out good spellers and sentence parsers, or even people with much more sophisticated communication skills, we will have abdicated our responsibility to this threatened planet. For the world macroproblem is not one that can be solved by direct attack alone. Rather, its solution involves a whole reconstruction of the way we view the world. And it's here, I think, that English teachers have a special role to play.

A number of recent futurists have seized upon the term "paradigm," as used by Thomas S. Kuhn in his book *The Structure of Scientific Revolutions*. A paradigm, Kuhn says, is "the entire constellation of beliefs, values, techniques, and so on shared by the members of a given community."[9] For the scientific community, a paradigm is a model for solving a whole generation of scientific problems. When, over time, more and more problems appear which do not yield to the model solution, then a *new* paradigm--the Copernican solar system, for example--appears.

Some writers have found the current human situation analogous to the Copernican revolution. Willis Harman, for example, head of the Stanford research group mentioned above, contends that just as science reaches a point when the existing paradigm no longer sufficiently accounts for the available evidence--a point when "anomalies" appear in great numbers--so our culture has reached a point when our *cultural* paradigm, the way we view ourselves and our world, is no longer adequate. In fact, says Harman, the world macroproblem is a result of the very success of the existing paradigm.[10]

In the schools, as they now exist, it is English teachers more than anyone else who have the responsibility for examining paradigms. First of all, we are the guardians of the world's stories--perhaps the principal vehicle for paradigm expression. In myths, songs, plays, novels, we see the enormous variety of ways in which the world and its people can be viewed. We, and our students, can learn from these works that all versions of reality are relative--that no single paradigm is absolute.

Moreover, we have responsibility for helping our students learn the crucial role language plays in shaping the way we see the world. As Whorf and others have showed us, paradigms are in many ways the product of the language we use. The problems of the world are, in a sense, caused by the words we use about them--perhaps they can be solved by changing those words. Even grouping the world's interrelated problems under the single term "macroproblem" may be a significant step toward a solution.

As the synergists are fond of pointing out, we are all passengers on a spaceship, a small craft with finite resources. To borrow a phrase from Buckminster Fuller, the chief responsibility of English teachers in America's third century is to use our knowledge of words and stories to help our students write "an operating manual for Spaceship Earth."

(This paper was originally presented at the 1976 meeting of NCTE in Chicago.)

[1] "Two Characteristic Current Views on Technological and Economic Growth," The Futurist, December 1975, p. 338.

[2] Deciding the Future (Urbana, Ill.: N.C.T.E., 1971), pp. 114-16, 124-27, 138-40, 154-58, 169-71.

[3] Quoted in Robert Theobald, Problem/Possibility Focuser: On the Future (Chicago: Swallow Press, undated).

[4] Notes on the Future of Education 2 (Spring 1971).

[5] The Greening of America (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 2.

[6] Alternative Futures and Educational Policy (Menlo Park, Calif.: Stanford Research Center, 1970), pp. 2, 3.

[7] Ibid., pp. 2, 6.

[8] "A Ritual To Read to Each Other," Public Doublespeak Newsletter, Summer 1974, p. 1.

[9] The Structure of Scientific Revolutions, 2nd ed. (Chicago: Univ. of Chicago Press, 1970), p. 175.

[10] An Incomplete Guide to the Future (San Francisco: San Francisco Book Co., 1976), pp. 21 ff.

ENGLISH TEACHER PREPARATION: WHERE WILL WE BE IN '83?

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"Mr. Ross, how did you become an English Teacher?" With that question, I seriously wondered if I ever would 'become' an English Teacher. The question presupposed that I had magically arrived at some mysterious destination, some never-never land that weirdos wander into because of their candy-stick curiosity about human and subhuman nature. Oh yes, I went to one of the big state universities and I took all the required courses and accumulated the 124 semester hours necessary for the degree, B.S. in Education. But did all that prepare me for the reality of English teaching? For whatever that degree may be worth, I see now, after five years' teaching, that what I received in rather large doses in my undergraduate preparation was indeed B.S. (backside sores!). There appears to have been some great discrepancy between the myth and reality of teaching English.

Under the classification of myth, I can vaguely remember all the wonderful literature courses on Chaucer, Modern British Authors, Shakespeare, the 17th Century Metaphysical Poets. Then there were the education courses on the sociological, historical, psychological, and philosophical foundations of education. And finally, I can't forget the methods course where I had to practice on my classmates the teaching of a lesson on the adjective. These were just a few of the experiences which "prepared" me to each English at the secondary level.

Under the classification of reality, I would like to describe for the reader's enjoyment and edification a few tongue-in-cheek examples of the kinds of courses which might more sublimely prepare the prospective English teacher for his or her journey into the land of Canaan: today's high school! Some of the more exciting titles might include: Effective lunch hour duty (or How to sound intimidating with peanut butter on the roof of your mouth); How to handle attendance problems (or "So what, teach, if I've got 3 unexcused tardies? What's it to ya?"); How to be observed by your principal on short notice; Taking tickets at home football games for fun and profit; The art of junior class sponsorship; Effective management of the concession stand; Problems in class meetings (or who needs Roberts' Rules of Order when everyone has a mouth!); Coping with parent pressure (known by the alternate title as "Ten Who Cared"); How to present academic concerns in a non-academic environment (or What do you do when athletes bring their jocks to class but forget their books and materials?).

Just what is teaching English anyway? Between taking attendance, patrolling the halls, and writing poddy passes, I sometimes wonder. Maybe it's the stuff we do in Mr. Ross' class because it's required stuff? Perhaps English is what most students put up with if you'll help them make A's! But give them a 'D' for doing their duty and showing up at school late and unprepared and they scream "unfair" every time.

The B.S. in most English teacher preparation programs has gone far enough! It's time to integrate more reality into some of these programs! Perhaps we should prepare less for subject matter and more for the study of schooling and what that involves. It's no secret--students are being schooled, while prospective English teachers are being educated: educated to make an analysis and synthesis of the "myth" and transfer or translate that myth into "reality" for their own particular situation. Can some colleges continue this kind of preparation in the face of rising criticism about declining standards of literacy? Let us hope not! Standards will continue to decline not only in college prep performance, but also in vocational performance where incompetence on any given job seems to be a skill nurtured in high school and tolerated in the business world where at times it seems to have become a way of life. Maybe this is why many a nervous neophyte kneels before the monolithic melancholy that assails his sagging soul and utters those hideous words of dejection: "Somehow I don't think that this is what I prepared myself to do!"

I think it's time for us as English teachers who are on the way to becoming better teachers to demand that colleges deliver some kind of "reality" training at the undergraduate as well as the graduate levels. Why not end the confusion in English teaching preparation and get some profession into it! For example, could professional standards be upgraded to the point of requiring prospective teachers to pass something like a bar exam before being issued a license to teach? It would be nice to think that most college teacher-training programs are meeting the needs of prospective teachers with sound guidance and counseling about teaching's "realities." However, I think may colleges are not addressing themselves seriously or directly to the problems of English teacher preparation. There seems to be a facile notion that colleges are the wonderlands where the "myth" of English teaching is more important than the reality. Not many, if any, college catalogs list courses on "How to teach the novel," with specific instruction on methods for presenting a particular novel. For instance, a methods course on teaching The Scarlet Letter, Huck Finn, and The Chosen complete with objectives and methods of evaluation, would be closer to the specifics to which I am referring. And while we're at it, why not a course on "Solutions to the problems of attendance, discipline, and academic standards in the English classroom?" Why not a course on curriculum development for the different levels, freshmen through seniors? How about a course on "State laws pertaining to teachers, students, and classrooms?" What about a course on "Motivational techniques for various genres like short stories, poetry, novels, and essays?" Why not a course on the "Organization and implementation of elective English programs?" Why not a course on "The use of media and teaching English?"

I have tried to describe what I feel would be some dlightfully dreadful and drastic changes in the preparation of English teachers. Now what are we going to do about it? Maybe for openers, the next time we sit in a college class on teacher prep in English, we could ask some of the same questions our students are asking: "Why are we doing this?" "Is this the only way?"

MONTANA ENGLISH TEACHER PREPARATION AND NEEDS: SURVEY AND ACTION, 1973-1977

Jack Folsom, Montana State University

Anyone who reads the 1967 NCTE Guidelines for the Preparation of Teachers of English, or the new 1976 Guidelines for that matter, will surely be struck by the apparent disparity between those Utopian visions and the harsher realities of underprepared and overworked teachers trying to get a job done with 150-180 students.

In order to get a better idea of the actual situation in Montana, we undertook a state-wide survey in 1973 The report in the following year helped to set in motion a more intensive effort in the state to improve the preparation of teachers of English and to meet the needs of those already in service Our small but active NCTE affiliate, the Montana Association of Teachers of English (MATE), is now using funds from one of the three NCTE three-year grants awarded last year for the NCTE/MATE Project English, an outreach program designed to provide resources and assistance to teachers in remote areas of the state A second survey of needs, conducted in the Fall of 1976 by Linda Shadiow, current Montana English Supervisor, confirms and brings up to date what the first survey found. Since other states are now interested in similar surveys, we hope that our experience, including our mistakes, will be of some help.

In the Fall of 1973, with the cooperation of the then state English Supervisor, Bill Ferguson, we sent out a lengthy questionnaire to all 750 identifiable teachers of Junior and Senior High School English in Montana. The questionnaire was intended to gather information about their present teaching assignment, their preparation to teach, their present needs for teaching, and whatever priorities they saw for services or programs in the state university system. The questionnaire enabled some statistical tabulations under eleven headings, but it was basically a rather informal net to gather information and opinion, so that the university system and MATE could adjust their priorities and programs appropriately.

Almost half of the teachers responded, and of these, 44% reported teaching at least one additional subject besides English, in many cases a subject such as Reading, which they considered to be separate from the English curriculum. There was evidence that a sizeable percentage of the teachers had been trained, and now taught, in a fragmented and compartmentalized manner, at a time when relating and integration were badly needed in English instruction.

As to training, 70% of the teachers reported that they had in-state undergraduate degrees, and they otherwise indicated that their backgrounds and points of view were quite parochial rather than diverse or nationally oriented. Only 20%, for example, reported membership in NCTE, and 24% membership in MATE, while 62% said they belonged to chapters of local professional organizations like MEA or AFT. Assuming that the 50% who did not respond to the questionnaire were even less active or involved in NCTE or its state affiliate, we saw a slight impact indeed of all of the resources and professionalism of the national English teaching scene. Our problem in Montana is further compounded by immense distances and the geographic isolation of many of our teachers in very small communities Even so, 70% of the respondents reported a moderate or large amount of post-graduate study, and 22% reported having some kind of master's degree, the vast majority of these being high school teachers. Although our questionnaire failed to distinguish between "inservice" credits for renewal of certificate and more substantial graduate study, we were able to determine that recent workshop attendance averaged 25%, more in methods and literature than in language or composition. At the same time, only 14% reported having taken recent summer courses in literature, 11% in methods, 8% in language, and only 7% in composition. A similarly small percentage (8%) had recently taken extension or continuing education courses We knew that the summer offering of courses in Montana was limited at the time, but again, lack of incentive and the hardship of geographic distance help to account for these figures. It was obvious that for further training to improve their subject mastery and teaching, these teachers needed not only more incentive, but also to have programs and resources nearer at hand. A large area of Montana is at least 400 miles removed from either state university, and the state and community colleges can offer very little in more advanced English study for teachers.

The subject matter course preparation of these teachers has been quite thin. Typically, a teacher has taken only four or five courses in what we consider to be basic and essential areas of literature. In composition, only 26% reported that they had taken a course in the evaluation of student writing, and an even smaller percentage had taken anything in advanced exposition, prose analysis, or process-oriented instruction in rhetoric. The situation was even worse in language, where 58% had taken some kind of introductory language course, but only 10% had had any training in dialects and usage. Since language and composition are essential components of the school English curriculum, we concluded that teacher preparation had been inadequate for the task. In many cases, the course work in all areas (language, composition, literature) had either been taken too early for the teaching relevance to be seen, or the courses were not taught in a manner that would enable the teachers to adapt and use the material. Many centrally important courses for teaching were rated low in importance or usefulness by the teachers. College English seems generally to have disregarded actual teaching needs, and teachers seem not to have been trained to relate, adapt, or integrate disparate material on their own. At the same time, the teachers reported that their preparation in teaching approaches and methods, traditionally taught separate from English in Education departments, had been too general or superficial to be of much use. Their comments indicated that they were aware as soon as they started teaching that they were inadequately prepared. Others who might have been reasonably well trained at one time have failed to keep up with new developments in the discipline, in part because the new course offerings in Montana have been so limited.

The teachers were also asked to comment on what further preparation they thought they needed and what plans they had to pursue it. Almost half either did not respond or were not sure. They expressed a vague and general sense of inadequacy in the face of changing curriculum demands, but they also complained about the unavailability of appropriate summer courses or workshops. A majority thought that a summer master's degree program in English especially for teachers was a good idea (the University of Montana had a small one just started at the time, and Montana State has since developed one), and 28% even said they would definitely be interested, which gives some hope on questions of incentive and motivation.

The needs of teachers in the field not then being met were diverse and far-reaching, all the way from "please send me a catalogue" to "we need a complete overhaul of the whole teacher preparation program." The most frequently cited items were the following: (1) good workshops, (2) new materials, (3) extension graduate credit courses, (4) realistic summer course offering, (5) better internship and methods program, (6) media courses, (7) professors who know school situation, and (8) visit remote districts.

From the 1976 survey, we have more definitive data on some of these needs, although this survey was confined to requests for information, resources, and materials which could be provided under the NCTE grant. According to Linda Shadiow's report to NCTE, with 58 schools so far reporting, the following request priorities emerged:

1. Composition teaching strategies
2. Reading teaching strategies
3. Composition and reading student activities
4. Literature teaching strategies
5. Reading materials
6. Creative drama teaching strategies and activities
7. Composition materials.

Less frequently requested were research data and background information in the above areas, plus oral language development, film-media, linguistics, journalism, curriculum building, and "others," such as outdoor education. Composition and Reading teaching strategies are the big and immediate need.

We are hopeful that the Project English program will improve English instruction in Montana, not only by providing materials and resources, but also by sending top-notch teacher-consultants into these remote areas. But in one significant way, the underlying need which was revealed by the 1973 survey is not yet being met. The argument is the same as with the old Commission on English and the N.D.E.A. Institutes of the 1960s: the teachers say, "don't bother us with theory--give us materials we can use tomorrow." To this, the people in English Education say, "if you master the theory and concepts of the subject, you can develop or adapt better materials for your teaching situation than any canned goods that we or the publishing houses can provide." Perhaps the best solution we have to this stand-off between solid teacher preparation and immediate need is the wealth of new material published by NCTE, which more and more frequently bootlegs concept mastery and solid research data with usable teaching strategies. If we can get more of these resources into the hands of teachers, then maybe their excellence will be translated into results. While those of us who know these theories, data, and resources talk only with each other at professional meetings, we must realize that the vast majority of teachers do not even know that help is available.

THE RESEARCH BASIS FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

Marie C. Roos, Oklahoma State University

Many teacher education institutions have developed performance-based criteria for teacher certification as a result of the U.S. Office of Education's 1968 plan for the reconstruction of teacher education curricula. This was the first attempt to apply broad systems planning techniques to teacher education in the U.S. (Joyce and Weil, 1972). As a result, investigations of teacher performance focused on specific, denotable teacher behaviors and attempted to relate these to student achievement. Some educators are convinced that the emphasis on process-product research has strengthened the scientific foundations of research considerably because it resulted in the more specific delineation and objective evaluation of teaching variables and student achievement. Others protest that teacher education institutions have committed themselves to competency-based education despite the absence of empirical research linking teacher behaviors to student achievement (Coleman, 1966; Jencks, 1972; Mosteller and Moynihan, 1972).

A major critique of process-product research, which arrived at the same conclusions, was conducted by Heath and Nielson (1974). The investigators analyzed the process-product studies examined by Rosenshine and Furst in terms of the following seven characteristics: (a) criterion of student achievement, (b) operational definitions of teaching behavior, (c) statistical results, (d) legitimacy of statistical tests, (e) sample characteristics, (f) study conditions, and (g) comparability of groups. As a result of the analysis, the investigators concluded:

1. An empirical basis for performance-based teacher education does not exist.
2. Operational definitions of teaching do not, in many instances, correspond to the teaching variables cited.
3. Operational definitions of student achievement are inadequate.
4. Research designs of most of the studies are weak.
5. Statistical analysis is undependable in many of the studies.

In addition, it was concluded that the research of the last 50 years has not demonstrated an educationally significant relationship between teacher characteristics and student achievement.

In the same vein, Rosenshine (1976) noted that since 1957, fewer than 25 studies have been conducted on any one variable such as teacher praise or teacher questions. Research on observable teaching behavior is sparse; consequently, the findings serve as hypotheses rather than validated variables. The focus needs to shift from searches for effective teaching to reliable cause-effect relationships cautions Brophy (1975).

Rosenshine and Martin (1974) screened 150 proposals on Teacher Education and Teaching Behaviors submitted for consideration for presentation at the 1974 American Educational Association Convention. Commenting on the state-of-the-research, they cited the following problems:

1. The research focused on well-covered areas and neglected other areas such as teacher behavior and student outcome or the methodology of research.
2. The research was repetitive, but noncumulative. In areas of teacher education and teacher beliefs there was little awareness of previous research efforts.
3. There was a lack of integration of previous research and a lack of research that sought to test competing and alternative hypotheses.

Papers most preferred by these reviewers were those treating the validation of teaching skills in terms of student outcome because of the paucity of research in this area.

Some 50 of the most conclusive process-product studies were selected for review by Rosenshine and Furst (1971); these focused on generic teaching behaviors which were thought to be effective across subject areas and various types of curricula. It was concluded from these studies that students learned best when the following teaching characteristics were present: clarity, variability, enthusiasm, task oriented and/or businesslike behavior, student opportunity to learn criterion material, use of student ideas and general indirectness, criticism, use of structuring comments, types of questions, probing, and level of difficulty of instruction. The first five variables received strong support and the remaining six had less support, but appear to merit further study.

Similarly, Dunkin and Biddle (1974) conducted a major review of process-product studies. Generally, the conclusions of this study supported the findings of Rosenshine and Furst, though the authors cautioned that few of the relationships were verified by experimental research.

Recently, Good, Biddle, Brophy (1975) conducted an extensive analysis of product-product research which, by definition, relates teacher effectiveness to student achievement. They concluded that although most of the data are correlational at this point, research treating correlates of student outcome measures provides evidence that teachers do make a difference and significantly so.

Brophy and Evertson (1974a, b, c) replicated Kounin's (1970) research; they are in agreement with his conclusions, namely, successful teachers are able to: (a) demonstrate more alertness and awareness, (b) sustain one activity while monitoring another, (c) pace lessons in order to maintain group momentum, (d) create group alertness through use of suspense creating questions and presentations of novel materials, (e) carefully monitor verbal and written responses, (f) generate enthusiasm, and (g) provide variety in classroom activities. In addition, the investigators found that effective teachers produced increased gains of achievement tests.

A group of studies was conducted by Brophy (1973, 1974), Brophy and Evertson (1973a, b and 1974a, b, c), Peck and Veldman (1973), Veldman and Brophy (1974) which included several methodological and design innovations designed to clarify the process-product relationship. A two-year replicated study involving 31 second and third grade teachers, selected because of their consistent success in promoting learning gains, revealed that teachers have different and significant effects upon student learning. For example, Brophy and Evertson found that high-SES students learn more when taught with methods stressed in most textbooks (indirect teaching), while low-SES students learn more when methods of overteaching are used initially. Modification of the program is called for when students gain greater independence in learning. The investigators suggested that indirect teaching is probably most effective after students have mastered the fundamental tool skills and work habits essential for initiating and maintaining their own learning.

In addition, Brophy and Evertson contend that many process-product relationships are curvilinear, suggesting that teacher behavior moderate on a specific variable produces greater learning than either extremely high or low correlations. Similarly, a curvilinear relationship was found between the percent of teacher questions which were answered correctly and student learning. Low-SES students made the greatest gains when about 80 percent of their questions were answered correctly. A 100 percent success rate indicated overlearning; a below 70 percent rate indicated that questions were too difficult for comprehension. The study revealed that lower-SES students needed material presented in smaller steps and with greater repetition than do higher-SES students. They recommended that this approach combined with a teacher-structured learning environment is the best initial strategy for teaching low-SES students.

A final conclusion of the Brophy-Evertson study was that teacher behavior which maximizes student learning differs from that which maximizes student attitude. Learning gains related to the teacher's classroom and curricular organization while attitudes related to affective teacher variables such as warmth and student orientation.

In conclusion, these selected studies point to the need for improved empirical research in the area of teacher effectiveness. The problem with research is: it does not measure the teaching process. Records on teacher performance are not kept, neither are actual classroom behaviors monitored to the extent they should be. Teacher performance criteria must be specifically denoted and evaluated accordingly. High inference as well as low inference measures should be utilized in data collection. Problems existing in this research area with regard to methodology, design, and statistical analysis must be recognized. The implications of these conclusions regarding research methodology and those relative to the generic teaching behaviors of effective teachers have obvious validity for teacher education/English education.

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WHAT WE DON'T KNOW

Nadine Shimer, Maryvale High School, Phoenix

Not long ago I was startled to hear myself described by a colleague as "hidebound." While I concede that some people believe the stubbornness that word connotes is part of my makeup, I'm reluctant to admit to the conservatism it implies. Questioning her as to how she'd concluded that I was hidebound, I was able to discover that that judgment rested on two experiences, the first of which was fairly easy to dismiss--she'd heard some students complaining about the grades I'd given them. The other had to do with the fact that I'd declined to give my Senior English classes the opportunity, six years before, of joining several other classes in the cafeteria for a Poetry Reading and Workshop by a visiting "poet in the classroom." When she'd recounted enthusiastically how the students had enjoyed and responded to the presentation and wondered why I hadn't allowed my classes to participate, I'd explained that they were scheduled to give committee reports that day. She felt justified in labeling anyone who would deprive her students of the chance to hear an inspiring speaker from outside the school "hidebound"--especially if the reason for doing so were to adhere to a schedule.

I searched my memory. It didn't sound like something I would do. What could my classes have been doing that I wouldn't postpone? Who were the students in my classes that year? Dan Lee. . . Herman Ward. . . Stella Romero. . . Aha! Now I remembered!

It was the second year of my "current issues approach" to Senior English. (The second year of almost any program is the best. The bugs have been worked out but it hasn't gone stale yet.) We were stuck with the English literature anthology chronologically organized, but I'd combed it for every reference to a variety of issues I thought had immediate relevance for contemporary students: war and peace, law and civil disobedience, love and sexual mores, relationships with the natural environment, and other categories. In the spring of which my fellow teacher spoke, my classes were working in small groups on a unit I called "The Value of Life" to try to discover the roots, in our English-speaking culture, of a variety of attitudes toward such issues as population size and increase, contraception and abortion, capital punishment and euthanasia, and air and water pollution.

As I remembered, each committee's report had been scheduled a week or so before we learned about the plan for a poet to visit our campus. I'd labored with each group as they sought to discover relationships between ideas, attitudes, and values expressed by Chaucer, Jonson, Wordsworth, and Stevenson and the ideas, attitudes, and values emerging in newspaper and magazine articles about "current" issues. In the first period class, the committee on world population and resources gave their report first. The class listened attentively to a presentation that consisted of reading projections of scientific data warning of the dangers of increasing population alternated with passages from literary works treating of the beauty of children and the pleasures of parenthood. After the prepared report was concluded, many students participated in the discussion (led by the committee chairman) of the implication of the report--was parenthood an inherent right of humanity, or would it have to be curtailed? How? When? By whom?

Throughout the day I heard other committees wrestling with comparably difficult value problems, using a variety of techniques for tracing their cultural backgrounds in literature and sharing their work with their classmates. They did so with varying degrees of success. Some classes didn't get very excited about the presentations, but in each there seemed to be a sense that the work had been of worth to the researchers and that the issues were important. As I contemplated revising our schedule to include a day spent with the visiting poet and a day or two of attention to the student-written products of the poetry workshop, I anticipated the groans of the committee members who had psyched themselves up for their presentations, as well as hurrying to complete their research to meet the deadline (although I realized there would be some sighs of relief too). It was not my wish to convey the impression that poetry was not enjoyable or important, but I had to balance that possibility against the sense of involvement with their ongoing work many students seemed to feel. I decided to proceed with the committee reports as scheduled and sacrifice the poetry experience

Memory doesn't always serve me perfectly, but I believe it was that day the first period committee on euthanasia made its report. Passages from English literature, from Donne to Eliot, on the nature of death, were read aloud and discussed by the committee members and then a number of situations drawn from the youngsters' personal knowledge and reading of magazines were described as provoking the question of whether it was ever merciful to end a human life. The committee had been unable to reach a unanimous conclusion, but each member identified his own position, with careful qualification as to who might, under what circumstances, decide to assist another person to die. When the chairman opened the discussion to the rest of the class, the explosion came.

Stella was indignant! Was no one going to oppose euthanasia altogether? That shocked her. She was a religious person and believed in existence after death--in heaven, in fact--but she could never condone a human being's playing God. One might have to take a life to protect one's own, but to kill in cold blood simply to save another from pain or a family from expense was immoral. How could anyone defend it?

Johnnye offered to do so. Life, per se, wasn't all that important, she asserted; you had to consider the quality of life. What benefit was life, to the individual, to society, to a deity, if it consisted of constant suffering or unconsciousness? If a person could no longer appreciate the blessings of life, if all he could know was ugliness, humiliating dependence, or nothing at all, it was a farce to prolong mere systemic existence!

The two girls exchanged views at some length, each citing cases they felt supported their positions, and other students leaped in to bolster the argument of one or the other or to offer compromise positions. As the debate raged it was evident that most students were fully involved. The committee chairman wasn't able to recognize speakers fast enough; once or twice I had to intervene to ensure that everyone who wanted to had a chance to be heard. Mostly, though, I listened.

As I listened, I marveled. Although the discussion was vigorous and the issue had been undisputedly identified as a moral one, there was no anger and there were no insults. There was concern for supporting evidence and attention to logical and practical consequences. None of these 17 and 18-year-olds expected to win this dispute by sheer volume or stubborn repetition. The most damning accusation I heard was, "But that's unreasonable!" I was proud of them.

As the period drew to a close, Stella, feeling pressed, scoffed, "Pain! What's pain? We'll all suffer plenty of pain in our lives. To sacrifice a life merely because of pain is cowardly and irresponsible!"

Johnnye rejoined, "My mother says she has certain goals for her life and once she's achieved them--rasing my older sister and me--she doesn't care how long she lives. If she gets cancer or something and is in lots of pain, I won't think she's a coward if she wants to die. And I hope I'd have the courage to help her. I just don't think death is so awful. A person who reaches out to life can reach out to death, too!"

As the bell rang and the students left, still buzzing among themselves, I felt it had been a worthwhile experience for them. In other periods it was other issues that provoked more interest--the question of contraception and abortion brought more than one class to life, and one class left traditional English literature far behind as they became fascinated with the questions of whether life could be synthesized, with the possibilities of cloning, and with the prospect of cryo-preservation of the dead. Devoted as I am to poetry, by the end of the unit, I doubt I regretted my decision to deprive those students of the "poet in the classroom."

One reason this recollection is so vivid, I realize, is that less than two months later Johnnye was dead. I know nothing of the circumstances of her death; I was told, a couple of weeks after school was out, that she'd died of a heart ailment. I have no idea if she had any foreknowledge of a short life, but when I heard that news and in later recollections I kept seeing her earnest young face as she said, "I just don't think death is so awful." I never spoke with any of her former classmates about it; they are scattered far and wide. I don't know if the news of her death reached them, let alone whether it provoked that association, or if it did, what their feelings were. I've sometimes wondered.

Recollecting that experience provided an ironic twist to learning of my colleague's perception of me as "hidebound," but her doing so was far from unusual. Most of us believe we know a good deal about the work of our fellow teachers, especially those we have known for some time and talked with about teaching.

A distinguished author, poet, and past president of NCTE recently gave a series of workshops on teaching composition in the Phoenix area which I found tremendously instructive and inspiring. I attended one of them with a teacher I knew very well--he'd been my teacher of junior English in high school, we'd served on the same faculty for 12 years, we'd swapped ideas, materials, and even classes over the years, we'd drunk beer together at Friday afternoon "curriculum seminars"--we were good friends. As we listened to the guest, and I tried to note down the techniques he was describing and illustrating, my friend often distracted me with irrelevant questions, bits of gossip, and the sort of play with which I was accustomed to his whiling away the time at dull faculty meetings. After we left the workshop I remarked that I was disappointed at his inattention. Didn't he find the methods the speaker proposed exciting?

He glanced at me, startled. "Exciting? It's good stuff, all right, but I kept waiting for something new. I've been using most of those ideas for the last couple of years. In fact, you can find more of them. . . ." He went on to give me the names of two sources of composition tasks designed to help us with the sorts of problems our guest had been talking about. Although I have the highest respect for my friend's teaching, it had never occurred to me to ask him for help with my problems in teaching composition. I'd taken for granted that I knew pretty well what he was doing in his classes because I knew him pretty well.

In the past year, both on an unusual scholarship traveling in Great Britain and as a supervisor of student teachers, I have had what was for me an unprecedented opportunity to talk with and visit in the classrooms of a number of teachers. This experience has been immensely valuable to me in a variety of ways. One of its important benefits has been to show me how often I've been deceived. I suspect I'm not alone in this. We often think we know what goes on in another teacher's classroom on the basis of what subject matter he likes best, what his students say about him, what he says in the teachers' lounge, or even more superficial indications--how often movie projectors are wheeled into his classroom or how he spends his weekends. It has only recently come home to me how often these assumptions turn out to be inaccurate.

The young blond in the short skirt whose conversation at the lunch table makes me ready to dismiss her as something of a bubble-brain turns out to have a classroom atmosphere of businesslike efficiency. The maiden lady whose cool and prim demeanor in the lounge makes me feel gross and clumsy will have, I conclude, an aloof relationship to her students; I'm amazed when the students eager to start a new club unanimously choose to ask her to be sponsor of the group. The bluff hearty man whom even his colleagues call "Coach" is turning out public speakers whose thoroughness of preparation is equaled by their poise and polish in delivery. The vague and colorless little man, hardly ever noticed by faculty members, is sought by students between classes and after school to read and critique their original poetry and fiction. The warm, motherly woman brimming with concern for her "little ones" conducts discussions of contemporary nonfiction in which her students produce sophisticated and incisive intellectual and literary criticism.

Each of these surprises and other comparable ones have made me feel foolish initially, but I regard the entire experience as a useful sort of discovery. (Suppose I'd cherished my mistaken impressions for six years!) It is wise, I believe, to realize that we rarely know what happens in another teacher's classroom. Unfortunately we are all too ready to form judgments based on incomplete information or even quite superficial impressions, and all too willing to pass our conclusions along to others--students, staff members, parents, members of the public. It is unfortunate because it can have consequences destructive to our profession and to ourselves.

I have been distressed when I encounter parents who are annoyed by what they assume is happening in the English classes at the schools their youngsters attend, but I blush to recall how many times I have tacitly reinforced the perhaps mistaken conclusions of parents who have complained to me about the teaching their children have had before arriving in my own class. We can do harm to students' receptivity to another teacher's efforts by even subtle expressions of disdain--a sigh, a shrug, a badly-timed chuckle. In conversation with other adults--taxpayers, all--it is simpler to shake our heads sadly at the deplorable lack of instruction in "the basics" than to explain what research has revealed are the basic elements of language teaching, but it isn't the responsible thing to do. Moreover, it is destructive of one's own dedication to his own work to assume that we know and disapprove of what our colleagues are up to. Why should we keep on laboring if we believe that all around us other teachers are lazy or indifferent or that their work is unproductive?

I have resolved that from this time forward I will endeavor to: (1) seek as much feedback from my students--both current and former--in order to try to discover what really happens to them in my own classes; (2) as much as possible, refrain from assuming I know what impact other teachers have on students; (3) be very cautious about revealing my impressions of another teacher's work to anyone; and (4) share materials, methods, and activities I find especially useful without assuming they are superior to other materials and techniques. I propose other teachers and prospective teachers might be wise to make similar resolutions.

Just as we can benefit from a pluralistic society in general, different may be better in the English classroom. An English teacher can preserve his individual philosophy of teaching and teaching style without making negative judgments about the policies and practices of teachers who are different from himself. Let's assume that a diverse educational environment provides a richer world for our students. Whether I am the hidebound teacher of my friend's imagination for six years, I'll attempt to be less hidebound in the future. Join me?

RESOURCE MATERIALS FOR SCIENCE FICTION AND FANTASY TEACHERS

Marshall B. Tymn, University of Eastern Michigan

PREFACE

In July, 1975 and March, 1976, two conferences on teaching science fiction were held at Eastern Michigan University; they were the largest such conferences ever held in the United States. As Director, I received scores of inquiries from high school and college teachers for a basic source materials document that would serve the needs of the beginning SF teacher. This bibliography is the end result of those inquiries; it contains critical and reference materials which should comprise the minimum preparation for teachers with little or no experience in the fields of science fiction and fantasy.

RESOURCE MATERIALS

Aldiss, Brian W. Billion Year Spree: The True History of Science Fiction. Garden City: Doubleday, 1973 (Reprinted by Schocken Books, 1974).

A lively survey of the development of modern science fiction. Aldiss contends that science fiction "was born in the heart of the English Romantic movement with Mary Shelley's Frankenstein." Ideal as a supplementary text in SF classes.

__________, comp. Science Fiction Art. New York: Bounty Books, 1975.

Beginning with an informative essay on SF art, Aldiss features the work of thirty artists in a section called "The Artists' Gallery." Following this is a section illustrating the major themes in magazine science fiction. The book concludes with a "Magazine Gallery," which surveys nearly seventy magazines from the pulp period, with a cover illustration of each along with brief historical commentary. This is an impressive book, with 115 full-color illustrations, plus 173 in black and white; it is certainly the best of the SF art books that flooded the market in 1975 and 1976.

Amelio, Ralph J. Hal in the Classroom: Science Fiction Films. Dayton, OH: Pflaum, 1974.

A teacher resource book on how best to use the SF film. It contains useful background articles, a filmography, a bibliography of critical works on the SF film, and a list of film distributors.

Arizona English Bulletin, 15 (October 1972).

The entire fall issue is devoted to Science Fiction in the English Class and contains a wealth of practical information for the high school teacher. Available from NCTE.

Ash, Brian. Who's Who in Science Fiction. New York: Taplinger, 1976.

Biographical sketches of more than 400 writers, editors, artists and others who have influenced the development of science fiction and fantasy.

Ashley, Michael, ed. The History of the Science Fiction Magazine. 2 vols. London: New English Library, 1974-75 (Reprinted by Henry Regnery, 1976).

This projected five-volume series will examine the development of the SF magazines from their beginnings to the present day. Volume 1 traces the earliest development of the SF pulps during the period 1926-1935. Volume 2 takes up the story after the Depression, covering the years 1936-1945. Each volume also contains an anthology of works from the magazines of each period, a checklist of authors' works, a summary of magazine issues during the period covered, a glossary of magazine editors, and a guide to cover artists.

Bailey, J.O. Pilgrims Through Space and Time: Trends and Patterns in Scientific and Utopian Fiction. New York: Argus Books, 1947 (Reprinted by Greenwood Press, 1972).

The classic pioneer study of the genre. In his Foreward to the Greenwood Press edition, Dr. Thomas Clareson calls Pilgrims "an indispensable book to the student and teacher of science fiction, for no other study has provided so comprehensive an account of the emergence of the genre."

Barron, Neil, ed. Anatomy of Wonder: Science Fiction. New York: R.R. Bowker, 1976.

This guide to the literature of science fiction annotates the contents of hundreds of novels and collections written over a period of 200 years. The volume is organized into the following sections: (1) Science Fiction: From Its Beginnings to 1870; (2) The Emergence of the Scientific Romance, 1870-1926; (3) The Gernsback Era, 1926-1937; (4) The Modern Period, 1938-1975; (5) Juvenile Science Fiction. Each of the five annotated bibliographies is preceded by a critical essay. The book will appeal to a wide audience, but will be especially useful for teachers who wish to select titles for possible class use or for background reading. A series of appendices contain supplementary information on secondary works, teaching aids, periodicals, literary awards, and library collections. Anatomy is also available in paperback from R.R. Bowker.

Bretnor, Reginald, ed. Science Fiction, Today and Tomorrow. New York: Harper & Row, 1974 (Reprinted by Penguin Books, 1975).

An unusual critical anthology of essays by SF writers about the nature of their genre, art, and craft. Contributors include Ben Bova, Frederik Pohl, Frank Herbert, Theodore Sturgeon, Alan E. Nourse, James Gunn, Alexei and Cory Panshin, Poul Anderson, Hal Clement, Anne McCaffrey, Gordon R. Dickson, and Jack Williamson. The selections provide valuable supplementary material for use in SF classes.

Carter, Lin. Imaginary Worlds: The Art of Fantasy. New York: Ballantine Books, 1973.

A survey of the important works and writers of fantasy fiction and their relation to and influence on the development of fantasy. Carter also devoted three chapters to the techniques of writing fantasy fiction. At the present time, Imaginary Worlds is the only basic text in the field of fantasy literature.

Cinefantastique. Box 270, Oak Park, IL 60603. $10/4 issues.

A magazine devoted entirely to the science fiction, fantasy, and horror film. Each issue features a major article on a recent film; additional content includes film reviews and previews, and reviews of books on genre films. Superbly illustrated in color and black and white; essential for film fans. Published and edited by Frederick S. Clarke.

Clareson, Thomas, comp. Science Fiction Criticism: An Annotated Checklist. Kent, OH: Kent State University Press, 1972.

A comprehensive guide to the critical materials in science fiction and fantasy to 1972. Contains approximately 800 entries, each fully annotated. The titles are listed under nine different categories; indexed.

Delap's F & SF Review. 11863 West Jefferson Blvd., Culver City, CA 90230. $9/12 issues.

A review journal devoted exclusively to science fiction and fantasy. Includes fiction, non-fiction, media arts, paperbacks, and juvenile titles. The reviews are intelligent and informed. An essential item for fans, teachers, and librarians who want to keep abreast of the current literature. Edited by Richard Delap.

Extrapolation: A Journal of Science Fiction and Fantasy. Box 3186, The College of Wooster, Wooster, OH 44691. $4/2 issues.

The official journal of the MLA Seminar on Science Fiction, also serving the Science Fiction Research Association. The first SF academic journal for scholars and teachers; enjoys a wide popularity. Edited by Thomas D. Clareson.

Franson, Donald and Howard DeVore. A History of the Hugo, Nebula and International Fantasy Awards. (rev. ed.) Dearborn Heights, MI: Howard DeVore, 1975.

Lists both the winners and nominees in each category since the inception of the awards, along with historical commentary. Much of this information is not available anywhere else; very useful.

Friend, Beverly. Science Fiction: The Classroom in Orbit. Glassboro, NJ: Educational Impact, 1974.

An ambitious attempt to provide the beginning teacher with material for planning SF courses in the high school. Includes philosophistic justification for SF in the classroom, definitions, short history, major themes, techniques of writing SF, SF films and TV programs, fandom, and various practical methods of teaching SF. Teacher's supplement available.

Gunn, James. Alternate Worlds: The Illustrated History of Science Fiction. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall, 1975 (Reprinted by Visual Library, 1976).

A history of science fiction as popular literature, whose origins lie in the complex socio-economic and intellectual milieu of the Industrial Revolution. An informed, highly readable study; lavish illustrations depict science fiction's major themes and include photographs of the field's most famous practitioners. Should be required reading for all serious students.

Hall, H.W., comp. Science Fiction Book Review Index, 1923-1973. Detroit: Gale Research, 1975.

A complete record of all books reviewed in the SF magazines from 1923-1973. Beginning with 1970, the coverage is broadened to include a number of general magazines, library magazines, and amateur magazines (fanzines). Continued in annual supplements.

Hollister, Bernard C., and Deane C. Thompson. Grokking the Future: Science Fiction in the Classroom. Dayton, OH: Pflaum, 1973.

This exploration of the key themes of contemporary science fiction "offers ways to approach social issues through SF." Each chapter constitutes a teaching unit, complete with sample reading list. Recommended for teachers emphasizing the social science content of science fiction.

Locus: The Newspaper of the Science Fiction Field. Box 3938, Oakland, CA 94611. $6/12 issues.

An indispensable publication for anyone who wants regular information on the current happenings in science fiction on all levels. Edited and published by Charles N. and Dena Brown.

Lundwall, Sam J. Science Fiction: What It's All About. New York: Ace Books, 1971 (Reprinted in 1975).

An informal introduction to all aspects of the field: literary history, major themes, magazines, fandom, with an especially fine chapter on the development of fantasy. This book is an ideal text for beginning SF classes.

McNelly, Willis E., ed. Science Fiction: The Academic Awakening. Shreveport, LA: College English Association, 1974.

A CEA Chapbook containing a collection of short essays by scholars, critics, and SF writers. Designed to acquaint the new teacher with the field as a whole.

Millies, Suzanne. Science Fiction Primer for Teachers. Dayton, OH: Pflaum, 1975.

A structured approach to teaching SF designed to help the teacher acquire the essential background information about the genre along with material and ideas for organizing an SF course. Annotated reading lists supplement all phases of the discussions.

Moskowitz, Sam. Explorers of the Infinite: Shapers of Science Fiction. Cleveland: World, 1963 (Reprinted by Hyperion Press, 1974).

A critical and biographical survey of eighteen early writers from the 17th century to the 1930's. Chapters on Mary Shelley, Poe, Verne, Wells, Shiel, Doyle, Burroughs, A. Merritt, Capek, Lovecraft, Stapledon, Wylie, Weinbaum, and others.

__________. Seekers of Tomorrow: Masters of Modern Science Fiction. Cleveland: World, 1961 (Reprinted by Hyperion Press, 1974).

A companion volume to Explorers of the Infinite. Literary profiles of twenty-one authors. Chapter subjects are E.E. Smith, Campbell, Leinster, Hamilton, Williamson, Wyndham, Russell, de Camp, del Rey, Heinlein, Van Vogt, Sturgeon, Asimov, Simak, Leiber, C.L. Moore, Kuttner, Bloch, Bradbury, Clarke, and Farmer.

New England Science Fiction Association. Index to the Science Fiction Magazines and Original Anthologies [1951-]. Cambridge, MA: NESFA Press, 1965- .

The standard magazine index. Arranged by magazine title, story title, and author. Original anthologies are included beginning in 1971.

Schlobin, Roger C., and Marshall B. Tymn, comps. "The Year's Scholarship in Science Fiction and Fantasy: 1974." Published annually in the December issue of Extrapolation.

The first installment of a series created to fulfill the pressing need for an annual secondary bibliography on science fiction and fantasy. It is divided into General, Bibliography and Reference, Teaching and Visual Aids, and Author sections; each entry contains a descriptive annotation. "YSSFF" covers all American scholarship, selected British scholarship, and important criticism from major, established fanzines. It includes books, monographs, articles, Ph.D. dissertations, and scholarly or instructional visual media. "YSSFF" relieves the scholar, teacher, and fan of the arduous and sometimes frustrating search for scholarly materials and sources among the array of critical and reference tools that appear each year.

Tuck, Donald H., comp. The Encyclopedia of Science Fiction and Fantasy Through 1968. Vol. I: Who's Who, A-L. Chicago: Advent, 1974.

This bibliographic survey includes complete publishing information on series, hardbound books and paperbacks, as well as brief biographies (when available) of the authors, anthologists, editors, artists, and prominent fans listed. Contents of all anthologies and collections are included. The Encyclopedia is designed as a general reference work and will comprise three volumes, with supplements issued at five-year intervals.

Wertham, Fredric, M.D. The World of Fanzines. Carbondale, IL: Southern Illinois University Press, 1973.

A history of science fiction, fantasy, and comic fanzines in the United States. Places the magazines in their proper perspective in American cultural history. Cites from hundreds of fanzines in his own collection; includes a glossary of fan terms.

K-12 CURRICULUM PLANNING: BOOTSTRAPS, PART III

Lois Caffyn, Kansas State Department of Education

English teacher preparation is often thought of as pre-service, or undergraduate study in English and Education. Yet the most valuable training teachers can have often occurs on the job; and planning an entire curriculum is a great way to get insights into what it is that English teachers try to achieve, day after day. I want to discuss with you my experience with planning a K-12 curriculum in language arts; the experience speaks for itself as an important aspect of teachers' in-service training.

During my years as the nondirective language arts specialist in the Kansas State Department of Education, I have seen local schools try to cure the ills of their programs by doctoring one fragment of the school at a time--elementary, junior high or middle school, or high school--with every suggested remedy: by gathering "great" materials and activities; by coordinating grade levels horizontally; by synchronizing lesson plans based on an adopted textbook series; by designing separate courses of study for the college-bound and the noncollege-bound; by establishing five ability levels for each concept taught; by anticipating the stated or imagined expectations of the levels to follow; by manipulating the schedule, the staff, the walls of the building, the arrangement of the chairs; and by closing the doors to all classrooms when the bell rings. After each innovation, however, they seemed to be like the early flyer who radioed in, "Lost, but making good time."

None of them had established an ultimate destination that would act as a magnetic pole to draw and justify all teaching and learning activities used along the way. Schools and teachers were buried under the "hows" of teaching but had given little thought to the "whats" and the "whys." For that reason at least in part, they failed to produce the millennium they were seeking, and within a few years their believers scattered or were looking for a new messiah.

In an effort then to steer school staffs toward determining the whats and whys of the total program, I assembled teachers from all levels within a district but found them unable to identify desired ends, partly because of the spread of the discipline and partly because of the limitations imposed by certain long-standing assumptions, such as the existence of genetic and chemical differences between elementary and secondary teachers. The elementary teachers immediately requested a segregated meeting in another room; they knew nothing about what adults need to do with language. The high school teachers were silent, wishing to go and grade papers. The endless repetition went on, frustrating and alienating students; concepts continued to be taught where only 20% to 30% of the students were ready for them; and gaps remained.

I therefore undertook to write a destination starter from which any K-12 committee could proceed to formulate a curriculum appropriate for its own students. I undertook it to see if what I had been recommending could be done. If I could start it alone, others in groups with specific knowledge of students at different levels could carry it on to open-ended completion.

First, as a working outline to include the important and exclude the extraneous, I unwound the rope of the discipline into identifiable strands which run all the way from kindergarten through grade twelve. These I stated in the simplest terms as topics.

For each strand I formulated at least one--usually two or more--long-range goal based on what I considered to be a needed or desirable adult competency for anyone exiting from the twelfth grade and going on to college or university, to vocational/technical school or other specialized training, or directly into the world of work. Each goal is nonbehavioral, in most instances, so that it may have the broadest possible base; applicable to the student's own present and future living; open-ended to suggest life-long growth in the competency; and ranging from the prosaic practical, through enrichment of the worlds of thought, awareness, and social consciousness, to the creative. These goals deal with knowing, understanding, and knowing how to.

For each of the long-range goals I formulated two or three end-of-twelve observable--not measurable--student behaviors as evidence of the learning stated in the goal. These I called objectives, to distinguish them from the goals. These objectives have several characteristics in common. They are

- -observable;
- -assignable;
- -directly teachable, cognitive and/or psychomotor;
- -testable;
- -stated in terms of student learning; and
- -reasonable for 75% of the students with a 75% degree of mastery, leaving about 25% who require special attention of different kinds.

Even though the two or three end-of-twelve objectives provide only a starter, when the lists are filled out by the teachers of any given school district, they will give direction to and justify all the learnings leading up to them. Activities that do not serve one or more of these ends may be time wasters.

At that point I discovered that I had written my philosophy of education in the language arts. Curriculum committees would write theirs also.

The next step was to break out the end-of-twelve objectives into block objectives, statements of how much or what part of the end-of-twelves approximately 75% of the students could be reasonably expected to be able to do with language by exit from grades 3, 6, 9, and 12--or 2, 4, 6, 8, and 12, according to the organization of the school--with a 75% degree of mastery. I filled out block objectives for the "Speaking" strand rather completely as an example.

The strands, the long-range nonbehavioral goals, the sample end-of-twelve objectives, and the example block objectives, along with an explanation of procedure, I made into a publication, Bootstraps, Part III.

No, I did not forget the valuable affective domain, but I wanted to distinguish between the learnings that can be taught and those that must be caught. With all the cognitive and psychomotor material arranged in left-hand columns, I placed related, long-range, nonbehavioral affective goals, indicating positive attitudes, in right-hand columns and followed those with two or three end-of-twelve observable behaviors as evidence of the attitudes. The affective objectives too have certain characteristics in common. They are

- -observable, not measurable;
- -unassigned;
- -not directly teachable;
- -not testable;
- -voluntary, to serve a student's own purposes;
- -characterized by appreciating, being interested in, being curious about.

The publication really does serve as a starter for working committees and provides space to write additions and changes for their local schools.

A local committee undertaking the Bootstraps procedure needs the following, which are listed in the order in which the need for them became apparent, not in the order of importance.

-impetus from the teachers themselves based on a feeling of need to "do something about this situation";

-two or three teachers from each block of grades;

-representatives from journalism, speech, and drama if the school has them;

-an administrator as participant, not as a supervisor of the committee, if possible;

-an interested school library/media specialist, if possible;

-a local chair, preferably elected from the group, with the power to call meetings, make needed arrangements, and preside if necessary;

-one or two volunteers to record accurately the wording of goals and objectives agreed upon by the committee and to make rough copies to distribute at the next meeting;

-a small volunteer subcommittee to edit at last the compiled material before it goes to the typist;

-consistency of committee membership and attendance at every meeting--barring emergencies;

-a regular place, time, and duration for meetings;

-courage to trust their judgments without use of textbook or other reference material;

-commitment to see the project through to completion, either the total range or selected strands identified as priorities;

-administrative and board moral support, at least, and some community knowledge of the effort, but not publicity;

-snacks at the beginning and throughout each session.

Student and lay contributions are certainly justified, but having nonteachers present where vulnerable teachers are for the first time searching the basics of their own profession stops the teachers from admitting struggle, uncertainty, and even failure with some things. Suggestions from outside the staff might well be solicited before the work begins or as comments on a preliminary draft.

Kansas was fortunate that the first school willing to be a pilot was a small district with lots of problems, only 21 miles from Kansas State College of Pittsburg. The impetus came from a teacher of grades 7-8 and her elementary principal. When they asked for credit for the project, I turned at once to KSC and the only person in the state that I thought could work this unknown way, Dr. Tom Hemmens. He helped us plug into a flexible graduate seminar number, the local board paid for three hours credit for each participant, and we were in business with 23 persons, including every teacher of language arts in the district. Dr. Hemmens and I as coleaders worked out or otherwise learned most of the items included here.

The committee needs a leader who is basically nondirective. Unfortunately, few local chairs can lead because they know the local situation too well. It has worked, however, in one district.

The committee needs also certain ground rules for its own procedure for which the leader has a major responsibility. The leader needs to

-begin with and maintain focus on the reasonable ideal. Outlaw reference to the present program;

-maintain student point of view, avoiding what the teacher or school will do;

-maintain focus on the whats and whys, never the hows;

-hold to the structure of student growth, not the structure of the discipline;

-keep the planning vertical, not horizontal;

-maintain the K-12 committee-of-the-whole approach until the teachers can work for short periods of time in block groups without losing K-12 perspective;

-maintain an atmosphere of honest search for truth and consensus, sometimes with individual compromise;

-maintain generalized discussion free from "war stories";

-ask questions that will bring clarification, specificity, and validity;

-maintain focus on a realistic ideal for 75% of the students with 75% degree of mastery;

-help supply verbs of observable behavior as evidence of learning and assist in formulating clear, direct statements--no paragraphs;

-steer away from objectives that serve the academic world only;

-maintain focus on exit competencies, omitting all process objectives;

-draw out what the teachers know better than anyone else about students but may not be aware they know;

-refrain from lecturing or teaching;

-offer briefly the findings of some new research study or other applicable information;

-keep the discussion moving forward so that it does not become high-centered on some issue;

-work with the editing committee without counting the hours; and finally

-inquire about the final copy often enough to push the typist to finish it.

What then? The teachers at the elementary levels have little trouble seeing what they have identified as their reasonable ideals for their students. They are glad to concentrate on sound beginnings and not feel guilty. With two or three years in which to bring about these learnings, they agree among themselves what priority responsibilities they will assume at each level, knowing that they have not failed if their students are not all together at the end of each year.

At the secondary levels where there are separate courses, especially minicourses, the teachers get together to claim the objectives they consider appropriate for the courses they teach. One of their concerns at this point is that a given student does not take all the courses and so may miss something vital. Three possible solutions have come to mind: (1) More than one course could take responsibility for the same objective in situations where the student is likely to take only one of them. (2) A master list of objectives and the courses where they are dealt with might be handed to each student early in his high school program so that he may select the courses that will best serve him. (3) Certain objectives, such as those relating to finding and organizing information and to composing for either speaking or writing, might well be incorporated into all language arts courses.

What are the purposes of doing it at all, and of doing it this way? (1) It is an attempt to delimit our discipline for the purposes of teaching and learning. For too many years everything that needed 100% of the student body as a captive audience has been dumped into the English classes, and teachers have graciously tried to undertake all that has been asked of them. In the doing they sometimes lose track of importances. (2) It is a shift of vision from teaching to learning, from what the teacher and the school will offer to what the student needs to be able to do with language. It is to formulate destination direction to teaching and learning, to justify the tributary learnings all along the way, and to communicate to others what they are trying to accomplish and why. (3) It is to determine block responsibilities appropriate to the students of a given school community. It is to shift learnings up or down on the learning continuum to the places where students can learn them with the greatest learning efficiency, that is, in the shortest time with the least inner friction. It is to say tentatively what, how much, what contributing part will be undertaken when, to replace the endless repetition and fill in previously undiscovered holes. It is to leave each level, including high school, some new, fresh, challenging learnings that have bever been ruined by being "introduced" before. (4) It is to serve as an umbrella plan under which textbooks, supplementary materials, and learning activities can be selected, changed, or originated to help bring about these desired ends, thereby discouraging the propensity to teach whatever each great activity or piece of material is designed to teach. It leaves the how of teaching and learning to the creativity of each teacher, indirectly suggesting that if one approach does not accomplish it, try another. It gives all the teachers the same destinations with unnumbered ways of getting there. (5) It is to create sorely needed communication and understanding among teachers at different levels. (6) It can serve as a general guide for new teachers and for other interested persons.

Are there both advantages and disadvantages in this procedure? Yes, probably, but some of them are both advantages and disadvantages. (1) One administrator, though he was at first impatient with the time needed for the project, declared later that the "ownership of the results felt by the teachers and the school is absolutely vital to making any improvements in the school system." In fact, every administrator who has participated with the teachers has expressed a desire to use the same procedure in all other subject areas and has requested assistance to begin in one other discipline. (2) It builds on a reasonable ideal without benefit of any text or curriculum guide and without reference to what has been or is now being done; beginning with "what we do now" makes it impossible to see the ideal. It causes teachers to "check out" something voluntarily in their classrooms and come bubbling to the next meeting to report their findings, a spin-off that immediately confirms or modifies their statements of objectives. (3) Teachers at all levels may feel relieved to be freed of certain things they have always tried but have not succeeded in doing well. Now they can do fewer and fresher things better.

On the other hand, (1) If these reasonable ideals prepared for improving teaching and learning are used instead for accountability before they have had time to ripen, there is trouble for everyone. (2) If the responsibilities are determined for each grade level tightly and measurably, the program could become as badly lock-stepped as before. These must always be kept open-ended, loose-leafed, subject to trial and revision. (3) In a district large enough so that only a small percent of those who teach language arts can work on the committee itself, there is the matter of deciding how to involve the other teachers in feed-in, feedback, and acceptance of the resulting material. Rejection is a real possibility if this is not handled wisely. (4) There is herein the possibility of losing it on the typist's desk before it is ever completed or of filing it in the bottom drawer; but with other teachers knowing what the levels have undertaken, a teacher is less likely to ignore it. (5) Even though one feels that teachers should be willing to do something because it needs to be done, many teachers, realizing that the project will require work and time, want some compensation for their efforts. In response to this request for administrator and board support, schools have so far provided gradaute credit, hourly pay, extended contract, professional time, or public acclaim--sometimes in combination. There seems to be a way if there is a will.

Those who have been truly involved in the Bootstraps procedure never again look at language arts teaching and learning as they did before, and this includes the leaders.

ARIZONA STATE UNIVERSITY TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM IN ENGLISH

William T. Ojala, Arizona State University

The English Education program at Arizona State University is designed to prepare students for certification to teach English in the secondary schools, grades 7 through 12. The total program--which requires a minimum of 126 semester hours for graduation--is divided into three parts: General Studies, Major (with an optional Minor), and Professional Education. Students enrolling at the University indicate their interest in secondary English teaching by registering as an English major, "Pre-Secondary." These students then spend the first two years in the College of Liberal Arts; when they have reached junior standing (defined as a minimum of 56 semester hours) they then transfer to the College of Education. Transfer students, of course, with this standing enroll directly in the College of Education.

GENERAL STUDIES

A minimum of 39 semester hours in general studies, in addition to six hours of freshman English, are required of all pre-secondary English majors. These studies are divided into four specified areas: Humanities and Fine Arts, Behavioral and Social Sciences, Sciences and Mathematics, and General Studies Electives. According to a statement in the General Catalog, the purpose of studies in the first area is to help the student "enhance his ability to develop a discriminating appreciation and understanding of the humanities, fine arts and philosophical ideas. [The student will] develop standards of critical judgment, ability to assess and evaluate humanistic ideas and values, and competence in the basic arts of communication and self-expression."

The purpose of study in the second area is to help the student "expand knowledge of the individual and his appreciation of American and other cultures; to estimate the impact of science, technology, and changing business and economic conditions on human societies; and to increase awareness of the major social issues of the time." Within this area, students are required to take four courses in order to be certified: Introduction to Psychology, a course in American history, and two political science courses, one covering American government and the second, Arizona government and constitution. Students can, however, test out of these latter two courses.

In the third area, students are required to take one course in science and one course in mathematics. Again, according to the General Catalog, the purpose of study in this area is to "explore the fundamental concepts of science and mathematics; to reveal the role of observation and experiment, inductive and deductive reasoning, and the quantitative approach in modern physical, biological and engineering science; and to bring into sharp focus the scientific forces that influence the destiny of man."

Finally, students, with approval of their advisors, select patterns of courses which fulfill the minimum requirement of 39 semester hours in General Studies.

MAJOR

The major in English Education consists of a minimum of 42 semester hours, of which 30 hours are required. These courses (with options) are listed here:

1. Advanced Composition or English Prose Style (3 hours)

2. Survey of English Literature (6 hours)

3. Current English Usage or Modern Grammar or History of the English Language (3 hours)

4. American Literature (3 hours)
5. Shakespeare (3 hours)
6. One literary type course (3 hours)
7. One literary period course (3 hours)
8. Literature for Junior and Senior High School Students (3 hours)
9. Methods of Teaching English (3 hours)

A few words about these latter two courses. As described in the General Catalog, the Literature course investigates "prose and poetry which meet the interests, desires, and capabilities of the high school boy and girl. Recent literature is stressed." With this description, much of the time in this course is spent on reading and studying adolescent literature. Students also develop units of instruction--most often topical or thematic literature units--which usually employ a response-centered approach to teaching literature.

The Methods course includes teaching composition and language in the secondary schools as well as discussing ways of organizing a total English program, methods of instruction, elective programs, and the like. Instruction in teaching composition usually focuses on topics such as invention and discovery strategies, processes of composing, evaluation, and brings in techniques such as generating sentences (Christensen) and sentence-combining exercises (Mellon and O'Hare). A major objective of the study in teaching language in the schools is to increase the students' awareness of and sensitivity in the use of the language. Thus, while a study of grammar and its place in the high school English curriculum is part of this study, other aspects of language study are included: general semantics, dialects, public doublespeak, usage, history, language development, bi-lingualism ~~or~~ bi-dialectalism, among others.

In both the Literature and Methods courses, the importance of using nonprint media in teaching English is explored. Commercial short films are viewed to illustrate themes, to provide motivation, to explain processes. Video-tapes, slide tape presentations, collages and montages, and other forms of nonprint media are developed by students as part of their materials in the teaching of literature, composition, and language. Commercial full-length films and television programs are included in these courses and evaluated in terms of their effect on students' thinking, writing, and reading.

Further, students with advanced standing (usually seniors only a semester or two away from graduation) may select for their electives in English from a variety of courses taught periodically at the graduate level. Some of these courses are: Censorship and the Teaching of English, Advanced Study in Adolescent Literature, Popular Culture and Teaching English, Teaching Critical Reading, Nonprint Media and Teaching English.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION

Students may select from two professional education programs leading to certification, both of which require a minimum of 25 semester hours (the English methods course is included both here and in the major). The first may be called the "Regular Certification Program." In this program, students take classes on campus which are in a more traditional format. Included in this program are the following courses:

1. The Secondary School or Self-Assessment for Teaching
2. Educational Psychology
3. Principles and Curricula of Secondary Schools

4. Teaching and Evaluating in Secondary Schools

5. Education Elective

The other program students may elect to follow is the "On-Site Certification Program." In this, students take one seven-hour course, On-Site Observation and Participation, in which they "observe and work with secondary school pupils in a classroom situation and attend weekly seminars." Following this, they take another seven-hour course, Methods, Curricula, and Problems in Secondary Education which is "the study and demonstration of methods of teaching and evaluating, principles and curricula of secondary schools, and special problem areas faced by secondary school teachers." It may be noted that the on-site program offers students the opportunity to get into schools somewhat earlier than the "regular" program, and perhaps because of that, increasingly students are choosing that program. During their student teaching, students also enroll in a two-hour On-Site Seminar in which they "meet with on-site professional education team members to evaluate and synthesize experiences."

After finishing either program, students then go into student teaching. Preceding acceptance into student teaching, each student teacher candidate is interviewed by one or more of the English Education faculty. At that time, academic background is gone over, choice of school and school level (junior or senior high school) is discussed, and, in general, the faculty member and the student teacher try to arrive at a decision for placement in which the candidate's interests, occupational goals, and abilities may best be met. Furthermore, the candidate's application is reviewed by officials in the Student Teaching office to ensure that minimum requirements are met in grade point average, pre-requisites, and so on.

Students may register for anywhere from six to 12 semester hours in student teaching. For each hour registered for, they must spend a minimum of one-half hour in the school; thus, for a six-hour registration, they are in the school for three hours; for a 12-hour registration, they are in the school for six hours. Except for the most extraordinary reasons, student teaching is conducted during the full semester, following, in most cases, the calendar of the school. During this time, student teachers teach one or more classes, observe others (these may include classes in other schools as well as classes other than in English), participate in faculty meetings, and, in general, do most of the activities their cooperating teachers do in preparing and teaching.

Members of the English Education faculty supervise the student teachers and regularly visit each in a teaching situation. In addition, faculty members conduct seminars for the student teachers in which problems are aired and discussed, strategies for instruction are gone over, suggestions for materials are given; these are periods in which genuine counseling and advising can be given to student teachers in their sometimes difficult transition from student to teacher. University supervisors work in close cooperation with the school cooperating teachers to provide the best possible teaching experiences for the student teachers.

Finally, all students planning to become certified to teach in Arizona secondary schools, regardless of major, are required to take two three-hour reading courses. The first of these is Reading in the Content Areas: Secondary, which is described in the Catalog as a course which "acquaints the teacher-in-training with reading procedures in secondary subject matter fields. Specific skill development emphasizing decoding skills, and evaluation techniques for the secondary level are provided. . . ." The second is Practicum: Secondary Reading, which "provides secondary teachers-in-training on-site experiences with high school students and professional staff members."

There is one other route students may take on their road to certification in English. Students may elect to remain in the College of Liberal Arts, majoring in English. They then follow the requirements of the Liberal Arts English major, a program which is similar to the English Education major. However, only 30 hours in English are required in this major, with an additional 15 taken from no more than two related fields, such as drama, speech, history, psychology. In addition, "knowledge of one foreign language equivalent to the completion of two years' studies at the college level" is required of the Liberal Arts English major. The Professional Education requirements remain the same.

The teacher education program in English at Arizona State University is under constant evaluation and review. The opinions of those persons who have successfully gone through the program are being collected and assessed, providing one means for measuring the effectiveness of the program. Although traditional standards and values will continue to provide some guidelines for the program, changes in learning theory, in knowledge of language and composition, in teaching theory, and in the social structures in which education is placed--all these will require inevitable changes in the program to meet the intellectual, emotional, aesthetic, and social needs of students, parents, teachers, and society.

OPPORTUNITIES ABROAD FOR TEACHERS-ACADEMIC YEAR 1978-79

Opportunities to attend a summer seminar or to teach abroad will be available under the Fulbright-Hays Act for the 1978-79 school year.

Elementary and secondary teachers, college instructors, and assistant professors are eligible to participate in the teacher exchange program. Basic requirements are: U.S. citizenship, a bachelor's degree, three years of teaching experience for one-year positions and two years of experience for seminars. As most of the positions are on an interchange basis, applicants must be employed currently. Seminars for current teachers of art, the classics, German, and world, Asian, or Middle Eastern history and area studies will be held in 1978. A seminar will be held also for social studies supervisors, curriculum directors, teacher educators, and school administrators responsible for curriculum development.

Application should be made before November 1, 1977. A brochure and application form should be obtained in September by writing to: Teacher Exchange Section, Division of International Education, U.S. Office of Education, Washington, D.C. 20202.

THE PREPARATION OF ARIZONA ENGLISH TEACHERS

Marguerite Caldwell and Mary Sasse, Sunnyside Junior High, Tucson

If you've read this issue of the Arizona English Bulletin from cover to cover, by now you've encountered many facets of English teacher preparation. NCTE's position paper tells us what to aim for; representatives of the state universities have shared their goals and aspirations for their English Education programs; teachers in Arizona and elsewhere have told us how they feel about the adequacy of their preparation for teaching composition; and we've heard some personal reactions to undergraduate academic preparation.

When we were planning this issue of the Bulletin, we thought it might prove useful to survey teachers of English across the state of Arizona to see if we could determine how well their academic preparation fitted them for the teaching jobs they now hold. To this end, between December 1976 and February 1977 we prepared and distributed a two-page questionnaire to a random sampling of teachers of language arts and English in Arizona. We received a 41% response, despite the fact that many teachers told us they were too busy to respond to questionnaires, especially a complex one. (Apologies and thanks to those of you who stoically waded through it anyhow; you've given us some valuable information.) What follows is a summary of the more interesting information we gleaned from the responses to the questionnaire; more detailed study of the data is being undertaken, and the results of that study will appear elsewhere.

Of the 336 teachers who responded to the questionnaire, 67 teach in Arizona junior high schools while 259 are high school teachers. (Ten respondents did not answer this question.) The schools in which they teach are located all over the state from Nogales to Flagstaff, although responses from urban southern Arizona schools predominated. The teachers came to Arizona from 41 states; only 51 are native Arizonans (15%), while about 9% come from Illinois, which is closely followed by California, Indiana, Michigan, New york, and Texas, each of which contributed about 6% of the English teachers surveyed. On the other hand, of the 535 degrees held by these teachers, 385 (or about 71%) were earned at Arizona universities. So it seems that teachers of English in Arizona come to the state early in their careers--perhaps early in their lives--and stay here to pursue their professional goals. This trend seems to be increasing with time, too. Of those who finished their professional education in the decade of the 1960's, 40% were non-Arizona educated, while only 12% of those who graduated in the 70's hold degrees from institutions in other states. (Our data may be misleading, however, since this last group, the Arizona-educated teachers newest to the profession, sent us more responses than any other--210).

Most respondents hold Bachelor's degrees in English (156); and 59 (18%) have Master's degrees in English. One hundred twenty three have Bachelor's degrees in Education, while another 99 (29%) hold a Master's in Education. These English teachers seem to prefer to work in colleges of education when they return to school for graduate study. Many respondents who are currently teaching English courses have majors in allied fields such as humanities or communication; a rather large number (20) majored in Political Science or Social Studies.

We asked teachers to name the courses they teach "other than English." The matter is complicated in that some English teachers consider fields such as journalism, speech, and humanities as part of English, while others do not. This was especially true for reading, which was listed as a course taught "other than English" 29 times, and as an English class 38 times. Our figures on these and other areas of study which might be included under the heading of "English" then, had to be compiled from responses to two separate questions, and are perhaps not totally reliable because of this. In any case, many English teachers teach reading, journalism, speech, foreign language, and social studies, in addition to administering study halls, advising publications, overseeing dramatic productions, acting as counselors, and monitoring lunchrooms. The English teacher, it seems, is the well-rounded Renaissance person in Arizona schools.

Our survey indicates some interesting things about those English classes which are being taught. The elective system is still strong in Arizona: teachers listed 84 elective courses, including titles such as Black Literature, Science Fiction, Film, Semantics, Logic, Rhetoric, Shakespeare, and Mythology. One teacher asked if we could help her to "save the elective system," but it doesn't appear to be in danger. Literature courses, chiefly American Literature (mentioned 170 times) and English Literature (116 mentions), constitute the courses most commonly taught by English teachers; also popular are World Literature (79 mentions), Mythology (72 mentions) and Adolescent Literature (64 mentions).

A healthy number of courses in what we might call "basic skills" are being taught in English departments in Arizona. Expository Writing was mentioned 125 times as part of the regular course work of English teachers--more often than English Literature. Grammar as a distinct course was mentioned 106 times. Reading is frequently taught. Often, these subjects are included in courses simply called "English," so it is difficult to estimate how much classtime is devoted to the study of language and writing, as opposed, say, to the study of literature.

Accelerated courses in English are still being taught (some kind of Advanced Placement course in English was mentioned as part of their work load by teachers 29 times), despite a federal regulation opposing tracking or streaming.

In the final section of the questionnaire, we asked teachers to describe and comment on their academic preparation for teaching English, and attempted to compare this to the kinds of courses the teachers are now themselves teaching. Ironically enough, the results have little statistical soundness, so we can do no more than generalize broadly about the areas of English which receive most emphasis in English teacher preparation, and in public school teaching. Some observations and tentative conclusions:

1. The areas most commonly studied in the university by prospective English teachers are English Literature (mentioned 356 times) and American Literature (305 mentions). Other courses were named as having been studied, but many of these were mentioned about one-quarter as often as American and English Literature: World Literature (160 mentions); Journalism (98); Teaching Composition (90); Poetry (87); Teaching Literature (81); Grammar (81); History of the English Language (73); Expository Writing (71); Developmental Reading (68). Literature seems to be the chief area of study in English departments in universities.

2. The courses most commonly taught by teachers of English in public schools are: American Literature (see above for numbers), Expository Writing, English Literature, Grammar, Poetry, Creative Writing, World Literature, and Reading.

3. American Literature is more popular than English Literature in the schools where teachers work, although it is studied less in universities.

4. Many teachers of English take courses in writing while in school, though not in the numbers in which they study literature. Many have had courses in the teaching of composition. And yet the number of courses taught in expository writing outweighs the number of courses taken in writing in the university. This is true of preparation in writing as a whole: while university courses in composition of all kinds (including journalism) are listed 323 times, teachers record the teaching of composition as part of their work load 394 times.

5. The situation in grammar parallels that in writing. While teachers mention having completed a university course in grammar 81 times, they list such a course as part of their

teaching load 106 times. Moreover, this figure does not include grammar study in courses simply labelled "English."

As if to substantiate the fourth of these observations, teachers list as the course they would most like to take The Teaching of Composition (52 mentions). They would also be interested in Minority Literature (41) and in Adolescent Literature (40).

One teacher vividly summarized some of these observations and added some of her own in a closing comment on the questionnaire, which we share with you by way of conclusion.

> "I was overly trained in Classical Literature but not at all prepared to help students who could not write sentences. How can you teach classics to students whose reading and vocabulary levels are 6th or 7th grade? All of the courses were for students 4-5 levels above the students I am teaching. What I use I had to prepare myself. Even the methods courses assumed a love of literature inherent in all students--a love which does not usually exist. These courses were highly impractical. The courses I wish I had taken are remedial reading and several courses related to learning disabilities. High school English courses are not merely watered down university courses. There is much basic training and remediation. These should be taught in the methods courses. Teachers need to be taught how to teach basics--contrary to English Educators' beliefs, students are not born knowing basic skills."

THE STUDENT TEACHING SYNDROME:
OR
DO YOU GET PAID FOR DOING THIS?

John O. White, California State University, Fullerton

Over cocktails at a recent conference, a number of us who had started teaching together began recalling what it had been like that first semester. One friend had a vivid recollection of a continuing dream she had at that time. She often had a problem getting to class on time, and in her dream she struggled to get ready, gather her books and materials, and rush to class. When she got there she found that she had forgotten to get dressed as she stood naked in front of her students.

I certainly wouldn't want to get into an analysis of the dream--or my friend--but I do know that the pressures and anxieties of teaching sometimes emerge in dreams. I have had some recurring ones myself. In a lengthy, drawn-out dream of teaching in a high school, I start the semester by consulting my class schedule and by going through the day meeting each of the classes explaining what we will be doing, and handing out material. As the semester continues in my dream, I have a vague sense of going through my days seeing the same classes over and over until--and it's nearly the end of the semester--I remember with horror that the sophomore speech class I'd been assigned and had met the first day or two of the semester had been completely forgotten. I'd never been back! How could I have forgotten? How could I explain? I suppose that even during the first semester of teaching I realized that there were more things to do than I could ever possibly remember or keep up with.

Recognizing the anxieties of teaching, I asked the student teachers I supervise if they are haunted by dreams and fears. They laughed at the obviousness of the question. Of course! They live in a world of pressure, tension, and occasional dread. Sometimes it must seem to them that their major goal is survival, just to make it through the semester. I decided to ask them to write about the anxieties of student teaching. The results, I think, are worth sharing if only to remind us how awesome it is to begin teaching--to be accountable to everyone, to be apprehensive about almost everything, and to be in many cases astonishingly naive about students and about education. Maybe a quick shot of recollection will help put the current student teachers' tasks into perspective.

One student teacher described her first day of class.

> My heart began to pound as I approached the classroom and heard the buzz of activity within the room. I felt inside my notebook and removed a thick sheaf of papers. I felt more secure when I entered the room with my six week lesson plan clutched to my chest as a shield.
>
> Incredibly, no one noticed me as I made this momentous entrance. I was slightly disappointed, but instantly resolved to make them more aware of my presence. I sallied forth to the front of the room and faced the students. The thirty-five students, occupied in shouting, sharpening pencils, and milling around aimlessly, appeared to number about a hundred.
>
> With a smile that was meant as an overture of good will frozen on my face, I proceeded to restore order to the room slowly. However the silence that followed was nervewracking. As the students observed me coldly, I introduced myself and began to inform them eloquently of the rules which would make our class function harmoniously. They remained unimpressed; a few glanced meaningfully toward the clock. My inspiring message, which had been designed to last twenty minutes, was over in four and a half minutes flat. The

> only response to my presentation was the laughter following my solemn reading of the tardy policy. Was this the way to welcome one who had come to share wisdom and knowledge?
>
> I handed out the "student profile questionnaires" and retreated to my desk at the back of the room. Although it was not hot or muggy, my clothing was soaked with perspiration. It clung uncomfortably to my body, as it has so far the rest of the semester. I began watching the clock myself.

And this was written by one of the most successful student teachers. Another student teacher recounted the first part of first period in which she had tried to take attendance, enroll all of the students who were sent over by the counselors, and distribute materials prepared for 28 to the 43 students present.

> After this traumatic experience, for which I was totally unprepared, I glanced hopefully at the clock (thank heavens the period would soon be over). 8:05! They've got to be kidding! Was this some kind of cruel hoax they had neglected to warn us about in undergraduate school? I leaned over to my master teacher and asked her when the period would be over, and she laughingly replied, "Not for eighteen weeks." Some people have a vicious sense of humor.

Just explaining to a class what a student teacher is, isn't easy, as another found.

> On the first day I had informed my students of my role and responsibilities as a student teacher, so on the second day one eager student popped up with "Do you get paid for doing this?" I was almost too embarrassed to tell them the truth, because I didn't want them to think that they had a raving lunatic for a teacher. But I admitted to doing it for "college credit" (whatever that means) and one student looked at me very strangely and said "You're crazy." I was beginning to think he had something there.

Even after the first day there are constant situations to challenge the rookie. "At times," wrote a young student teacher, "I suffer from extreme embarrassment, such as the occasion this semester when one of my students shouted out in class: 'Miss ______, you have big chee-chees!' My first instinct was to hide, but, red faced, I managed to remain in the room and to regain control."

Another reported being haunted by student voices shouting at her. "This is dumb," reverberates in scores of adolescent tones in her mind. "Don't ever call my mother again!" is snarled menacingly after her evening of parent calls. "Why do we have to do this?" will probably echo forever in all teachers' minds.

And night doesn't bring respite. Besides thinking about the next teaching day, other questions nag, as they did for this student teacher. "Will the alarm go off? Maybe I'd better get a wind-up clock in case the electricity goes off. What if my car breaks down and I can't reach a phone? Do my students merely wait in the halls until I arrive? And what if I don't arrive?" Others worry that they'll have to deal with students' passing out in class or fights breaking out or any of a thousand too likely though unforeseeable challenges.

Falling asleep is no answer either. In a dream one student teacher saw herself in front of her class:

> My mouth will not open. I am paralyzed, unable to remember what I was to teach and unable to put my hands on the material.

> I see the shifting of bodies in my audience and hear the rustling of paper. They are on to me and my disguise as 'teacher.' They note the beads of sweat forming on my upper lip. With derision they point and laugh. 'Where's the real teacher?' Then I realize the vice-principal has chosen this opportune time to view the mayhem. Not saying a word, he stands with folded arms watching. The sneer on his face tells me how much he's enjoying this charade.

And symptoms of the student teaching teaching syndrome may show up at any time:

> One day after school I met my mother to do some shopping, and from there I followed her home in my car. While driving I was given to serious thought about the day's accomplishments. I occasionally glanced at my mother in my rear view mirror to find her staring back with a look of strange questioning on her face. Arriving home, she asked me if I had been aware of the grim expression I had on my face all the way home. Of course, I felt she was exaggerating when she suggested my grimmace could cause an accident by the fear it would put in those drivers who looked at me, so the next day I made an effort, while driving home, to remember to look in the mirror. What a shock it was! I am surprised I hadn't been turning any onlookers into stone. Not only was my face a telling picture of the day's frustrations, but I noticed too that my hands were clutching the steering wheel. Though my tension may not surface in the classroom, my drive home becomes 'the great white knuckler.'

Another student teacher confides that:

> Going to and from school, of course I am thinking about my classes. I'll drift into an almost dream-like state, but then I'll become aware of my driving. It never fails to amaze me how tightly my hands will be clenching the steering wheel and how rigid my body is. I must look ridiculous with my neck jutting forward and my face stiff as I stare straight ahead as if I had blinders on.

And these comments are by student teachers who are not only going to make it through the semester, but who are already competent in the classroom. Still, the student teaching semester is an anxious time with new crises and new challenges every day. Of course there are rewards--and for most, at least matching and even superior rewards. But the emotional pressures of student teaching are surely more severe than the pressures in any strictly academic class.

It might not hurt for all of us to remember what it was like to learn to face thirty-five or forty teenagers who were being detained by us for fifty minutes, who were waiting for us to teach or entertain or at least occupy their time, and what it was like to plan, to struggle, to abandon plans and sometimes to wing it--all to try to transform those disparate teenagers into our class. Surely we'll recognize the symptoms of student teaching and be encouraged, maybe even compelled, to go out of our way to share our experiences and materials, and to be supportive in every way of those entering our profession.

With thanks to all of my student teachers, especially those I've quoted: Sharon Oliveri, Norma Tracy, Elizabeth Turpit, Wendi Ward, Marilyn Williams, Yolanda Young, and Julie Zeller.